The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 11, 1895.

The Week.

SENATOR HILL'S opposition to the income tax was long ago set down, by all not too bright and good for human nature's daily food, to the credit of his contract to beat the tariff bill at all hazards; and the Supreme Court's decision scarcely wins for him that great rank among jurists and pure-minded patriots which he is modestly claiming. He has nothing to say about the one salient fact relating to his connection with the decision, namely, that but for his intriguing opposition to the nominations of Messrs. Hornblower and Peckham to the Supreme bench, Monday's decision would almost certainly have been against the law *in toto*. When even Justice Gray, who wrote the last legal-tender decision practically ascribing unlimited powers to Congress, was found against the income tax, it is safe to say that no New York judge would have been for it. Hill's scheming fight against honest New York Democrats who had denounced him and his political crimes in proper terms thus leaves him responsible, more than any other man, for the failure of the court to overthrow the income tax root and branch.

Many of the sages of the Republican party have now indicated the course they will pursue on the tariff and currency questions in the next Congress and the next Presidential campaign. The net result of their wisdom seems to be that they will do nothing and say nothing to give offence to a single voter. Ex-Speaker Reed gave out an interview on March 16. All he would say was, that the next House was going to be a body of remarkable ability. Would it do anything with the tariff? Not a thing. Would it touch the currency? Dead silence. The interviewer should have been more discreet than to ask this question of a man who was not yet over his terrible experience in the House between the fires of the jeering Populists, the nagging Democrats, and the amazed sound-money Republicans. Col. Henderson admitted, the same day, that the silver question gave him some uneasiness, but defied those prophets who said his party would split on that issue. His idea was that keeping still hard enough would make irreconcilables get on together peacefully. Congressman Grosvenor spoke up for McKinley vs. Reed on March 19. He was for going in headlong for protection. Having won the election on that issue, why drop it when victorious? As to silver, let the country rest assured. Currency difficulties would be settled (way not mentioned) by the only party that had wisdom and patriotism enough to settle anything. McKinley startled the country for a day or two by a report that he was flatly out against free silver; but, as was generally expected, he denied later that he had said anything of the kind. Chairman Manley of the national committee went abroad on March 22, leaving behind him the exhortation to forget all about the silver question and turn in and elect a Republican President. All this reduces the Republican policy to bald opportunism, or, in vulgar phrase, waiting to see how the cat will jump.

Ex-Speaker and to-be-Speaker Reed is not so much disposed as he once was to sneer at economy in Government expenditures. He says, "It is sincerely to be hoped that any effort made by the next Congress to keep down the appropriations may have the support of public sentiment and popular forbearance." But how does he propose to keep them down? By asking the grabbers to please not to grab, the jobbers not to job, and the log-rollers not to log-roll. He remarks: "If each portion of this country should be reasonable in its demands, the total also would be reasonable." That's as clear as a sum in simple arithmetic, but who is to determine what is reasonable? who is to hit the unreasonable snouts a rap and make them back away from the trough? Mr. Reed does not say. Yet nothing can be more certain than that the hungry mob in the next Congress will trample on their nominal leaders, just as they did in the last Congress, unless some clear and resolute plan to hold them in check can be devised. With his great prestige and power as a Speaker, Mr. Reed will have a fine opportunity to make the next House an economical House—either by changes in the rules or in the organization, or by his personal control, or by extending party discipline to the appropriations. In this respect, and in directing currency legislation, he has his political marring or making in his own hands, and it will be interesting to see if he has in him the stuff of a true leader.

An amusing commentary upon the loud-sounding talk of New England filibusters about "American interests in Samoa" is found in the report just rendered by Mr. W. L. Chambers, United States land commissioner to Samoa. Mr. Chambers was one of three commissioners appointed by this country, Great Britain, and Germany, under the provisions of the Berlin Treaty, to adjust and settle claims by aliens to land in Samoa. The total number of claims filed before the commissioner was 3,942, of which 307 were American, and they aggregated 1,691,893 acres, while the islands contain but 950,000 acres. Only 8 per cent. of all the claims were confirmed, and the vast bulk of the acreage claimed by Americans was rejected "because of the manifestly inadequate consideration given for it, and because the titles were defective under several of the provisions of the treaty." About 21,000 acres were confirmed to Americans, and most of this land belongs to a corporation composed of San Francisco stockholders. Mr. Chambers heard of only nineteen bona-fide American subjects in the country, exclusive of officials, and he does not believe there are thirty Americans there all told, including those who claim citizenship through naturalization. As for Pago Pago Bay, the claims of the United States Government were examined and confirmed, but Mr. Chambers reports that they are of little value, since the bay is so small that not more than three or four ships can be anchored there in case the wind is blowing either into the mouth of the harbor or off shore. Altogether the revelations made by our land commissioner are sufficient to shut up the political highwaymen who are for our seizing territory in every part of the world—so far as Samoa is concerned; except that nothing makes any impression on people in such an intoxicated mental condition as Senator Frye's.

The *Tribune's* rebuke of this Senator for his filibuster's swagger about Cuba, and the *Independent's* denunciation of him as a buccaneer, have roused him to fresh fury. He will not take an "insult" from any nation on earth. If France or Great Britain takes him for a man who will meekly submit to an "aggression," or who would not pour out his dear blood for the Monroe Doctrine, they are very much mistaken. In fact, he is ready to seize, fortify, and hold "against the world" all the islands on the map, and "would reach out to take whatever, in our opinion, was, or might be, necessary to our future commercial supremacy." All this sounds like the wild mutterings of a man in a condition which is supposed to be unknown in prohibition Maine. Men who have stayed themselves too fondly with flagons defy "the world" in this fashion, see horrid things about to commit aggressions on them, and do as much "reaching out" as Senator Frye himself. The police, however, or the hospital, or an early grave usually gives their friends surcease of sorrow on their account. But no little thing like that will stop Frye—nothing less than the Senate chairmanship of the committee on foreign affairs, we are convinced, will soothe his pain.

The antics of the nineteen men who now constitute the republic of Hawaii are actually amusing in their audacity. When they declared martial law, they expressly stated that "the courts will remain in session and conduct ordinary business as usual," except as to the issue

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of writs of habeas corpus. Yet hundreds of citizens were seized without warrant, imprisoned without arraignment, and tried for suspected treason before a military commission, being denied the right of trial by jury guaranteed by the Hawaiian Constitution. The situation is closely analogous to the famous Milligan case passed upon by the Supreme Court. Milligan was convicted of treasonable conspiracies by a military commission and sentenced to be hanged. But the Supreme Court intervened, and decided that in a place where actual war did not exist, and where the civil courts were open, no man could be deprived of life or liberty by a military commission. That was not "due process of law." The Hawaiian nineteen seem to have heard of this decision, and so have gone to work and passed acts validating all that they have done. As executive they override the laws and Constitution, and then as Legislature the same precious nineteen pass acts declaring all they had done to have been "within the constitutional authority of the President," and that no suit for damages or prosecution for malfeasance in office can be brought against the Government or any officer thereof. This is a little the boldest trick that the usurpers have played yet. They admit that they have imprisoned and fined citizens without due process of law, but scornfully remind their victims that they are the legislative branch, as well as the executive and judicial, and that no redress can be had. But, of course, no one but a *Kahuna*, or a man whose chastity or liberty-loving principles are under grave suspicion, will see in such conduct anything but pure devotion to free institutions and religion.

The Platt faction in the Legislature have been taken aback by the discovery that Mayor Strong can absolutely veto any bill relating to this city which is not passed fifteen days before the adjournment. The Lexow police-reorganization bill is the one most exposed to this danger, for although the Legislature can pass such a measure over the mayor's veto, it would be very difficult to get the votes to pass it, and still more difficult to hold the Legislature together for that purpose if the usual time for adjournment had arrived. Various projects are mooted for getting around this provision of the Constitution, but fortunately we have courts to interpret and enforce that instrument. An opportunity for the exercise of their powers may perhaps be offered in the case of a bill relating to the city of Brooklyn which was returned "*Not* accepted" by the mayor of that city, but was stamped "Accepted" by a clerk at Albany and sent to the Governor, who thereupon signed it. Inasmuch as this bill lacks one of the constitutional requirements for the validity of a law, it must be considered waste paper, since otherwise all bills relating to cities might be treated in the same way, and thus this provision of the Constitution rendered nugatory.

Lieut.-Gov. Saxton confirms Mr. Depew's view that Platt's hold upon the Senate is so strong that there is little chance of any of the reform measures for this city becoming laws. Thus high Republican authorities admit that, so far as legislation is concerned, Tom Platt is the Republican party of the State of New York. The *Tribune*, another high authority, says that the secret of Platt's power is corruption, that he owns the Republican Senators body and soul because he has bought them with the money which he receives from corporations as the price of legislative immunity. This is the Republican situation as described by Republicans. There is no Mugwump malignity in the picture. Tom Platt tells the people of the State, and especially the people of this city, that they shall have no legislation except what he wishes to give them, and that he will give them only such as he is paid his price for. He will keep Tammany thugs upon our police-justice bench, will refuse to allow us to reform our police and school departments, and will even refuse to take away from the control of Tammany's boss the legal real-estate sales of the city. There is no subterfuge about him. He takes his position openly, and defies anybody and everybody to make him budge from it.

We are glad to see educators and clergymen moving against the bill to make military drill in the public schools compulsory. The Brooklyn Board of Education passed a resolution against it last week, requesting the Brooklyn members of the Assembly to oppose its passage. In defence of the bill it is urged that the physical benefits to be derived from regular military drill would be valuable. But physical training of various kinds is now voluntarily provided in most of the schools, and there is no more reason for prescribing the particular form than there is for compelling arithmetic to be taught in a certain way. Moreover, the bill is mandatory and would entail a great expense—much greater, certainly, if it were to be carried out thoroughly and generally, than the $100,000 named in it. But the gravest objection is that the bill springs from the same senseless and brutal war-spirit that is making wreck of so many public reputations, and continually threatening to embroil us with other nations. What its promoters really have in mind is, not physical exercise, not parades and displays, but the spreading in childish minds of the idea that fighting is the noblest occupation of man, that we are all the while exposed to insults and aggressions, and must be ready to whip all creation on call. Now, the boys have too much of this idea already. It is in their minds that the furibund patriotism of Lodge and Frye finds most admiration—in fact, so far as we have observed, its only admiration. What they need, together with their fellow-juveniles in the United States Senate, is, not military drill, but instruction in good manners, in the arts and love of peace, and in ambition to make the country decent and habitable instead of feared. We are confident that the humane and educated sentiment of the State needs only to be appealed to in order to show that it is solidly and strongly against compulsory military drill in the schools.

The report of the legislative committee which investigated the Brooklyn strike is of more value than such a report is apt to be. It presents a clear summary of the causes that led up to the strike, fixes the responsibility for the practical paralysis of government that followed, and expresses sound views on the question of arbitration. Mayor Schieren is rightly held blamable for "weakness and want of energy" during the early days of the strike, and is declared to have "shown a most marked lack of fitness and capacity for the office." The committee say that the situation became serious only "when the disorderly elements realized the nervelessness and want of energy of the municipal government," and they express the opinion that with an able, firm, and thoroughly energetic municipal administration there would never have been any necessity of calling upon the militia. This is the conclusion that was reached upon the newspaper reports by all competent judges at the time, and the comprehensive review of proceedings here given leaves no doubt upon the point. We do not recall an instance in this country where a city government so shamefully and inexcusably failed in the discharge of its first duty to keep the peace. The radical error in all the dealings of local authorities with strikes lies in the habit of waiting for the mob to get bold before acting.

In discussing remedies to prevent the recurrence of such strikes, the committee makes short work of the compulsory arbitration plan, "because it can conceive of no really effective way in which the employees can be subjected to the decrees of the board of arbitration in the same manner in which the company can, without a wholly unjustifiable assault upon the principle of individual liberty to contract." It is recommended that the existing board of arbitration be required, whether invited or not by either party, to investigate all strikes and report its conclusions as to which party is at fault; the theory being that this course will enlighten public opinion and thus do some good. As for the ten-hour law, doubt is expressed whether it is constitutional, or whether any such law can be passed that will obviate the necessity for an agreement on the subject between employers and employed. The most important feature of the report is a recommendation that the employees of corporations exercising public franchises should be made "quasi-public servants,"

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and as such be guaranteed the right of notice and hearing before discharge, while on the other hand required to give proper notice before abandoning such service. To carry out this idea, the committee has drafted an act providing that all employees on railways must be licensed, that such licensed employees must give fifteen days' notice of an intention to leave, and that any employee violating this or other conditions shall forfeit his license, which would prevent a motorman who thus lost his license in Brooklyn from again getting a place in that capacity anywhere in the State. As to this and all other plans, however, the committee sensibly say in conclusion that they "do not believe that there is any radical legislative remedy," and that "the only ultimate cure must come naturally from better relations and a greater feeling of sympathy between employers and employed."

The Voorhees investigating committee is besought from all parts of New Jersey to come and show up local rottenness. All the big cities are morally sure that they have been robbed, several of the counties are certain that their officials have not got suddenly rich on air, while State contracts for printing, the summer encampments of the militia, the doings of the World's Fair commissioners, and the deposit of State money in favored banks are all alleged to be over-ripe for investigation. This cry of the misgoverned is not peculiar to New Jersey. Legislative investigation is coming to be looked upon more and more as the great defence of taxpayers against municipal robbery. The slight beginnings of such an inquiry in Philadelphia showed what might have been laid bare in that city if the bosses had not taken fright and broken the whole thing off short. In some Ohio counties taxpayers' leagues have been formed to guard against oppression and fraud at the hands of county officers. Some large investors holding Western real estate have decided to contest all municipal and county taxes levied on their property, on the ground that fraud attaches to most of them, and that it is a saving of money to fight them in the courts. The part that legislative inquests have come to play in the affairs of this city and State indicates the part they might play in many cities and States. In fact, if the framework of government were now to be framed *de novo*, to fit actual needs and demands, a permanent investigating committee, with full powers, ready to go on call to any part of the State, would be a most popular institution.

Gov. Holcomb of Nebraska, in an excellent message, week before last, vetoed the bill providing for the payment of a bounty from the State treasury on sugar manufactured from beets. He withheld his approval on the ground that the act was "in the nature of class legislation and of doubtful constitutionality," and pointed out that through it the rights of property of the many who do not raise beets were invaded, and their means taken to advance the welfare of those who are engaged in this business. The Governor went to the executive office from the Supreme bench, and he showed clearly that the great weight of judicial authority was against the constitutionality of the measure. On grounds of the public welfare he opposed the proposition as inaugurating a policy which would inevitably cause other industries to "knock at the door of each recurring Legislature, praying for the stimulus of a bounty to be taken from the pockets of the people," and he declared that such bounties could as reasonably be asked for irrigated land, alfalfa fields, manufacturing plants, and numerous other enterprises as for the raising of a single agricultural product. Unfortunately, the Governor's message was addressed to legislators who were not open to conviction, and the bill was passed again over his objections by more than the requisite three-fifths vote.

Civil-service reform makes progress not merely by such a great victory in an election as was won in Chicago on Tuesday week, but also by the steady acceptance of its principles as they apply to a host of important offices under the federal Government all over the country. For example, a new postmaster has just been appointed in Cincinnati. Under the spoils system as it prevailed fifteen years ago, such a change would have involved a "clean sweep" among the scores of employees, and the substitution of a Democrat for every Republican. But under the civil-service law the new incumbent finds that he can make appointments to only four places, all the rest being subject to competitive examination; and he says that he is "glad of it." So is the whole business community. As for the spoilsmen, they are fast losing their interest in changes among heads of offices, when almost every subordinate position comes under the merit system. In this way public sentiment in one city after another is coming to accept civil-service reform as the natural and proper thing.

English politics is at that stage of the game when the finest points of play count the most, and it looks as if the Conservatives were doing their full share of the blundering. Their relations to the Liberal-Unionists are strained almost to the breaking-point over the speakership question, and particularly over candidates for two vacant seats in the House. Mr. Courtney might have been chosen Speaker if his own party colleagues would have supported him. The Government offered him the nomination, but Mr. Chamberlain, who is now about as stiff a Tory as he is a socialist, would not have it, and forced the separate nomination of a Tory, Sir Matthew Ridley. Then there is the bye-election for Warwick and Leamington, a Liberal-Union seat, notwithstanding which the Tories persist in running a candidate, in violation, so it is asserted, of the compact of 1886. Mr. Balfour has tried to stop this, but the hot-headed young Tories will not listen to him, and say they are going to win every seat they can, Liberal-Unionist or not. If this spirit of triangular fighting should be carried into the next general election, the Conservatives would be dished. So they will be, even more surely, if Balfour succeeds in committing his party to bimetallism. His Mansion House speech on Wednesday week will have to be repudiated by the Tories, or else he will have to be repudiated. Sir William Harcourt is entirely ready to see the Philistines delivered into his hands on that question, and a campaign for the gold standard, a Radical budget, Welsh disestablishment, and Irish home rule could have only one result in Great Britain.

There has undoubtedly been a little more amity in the relations of France and Germany of late. Kaiser William's telegram of sympathy at the time of Carnot's assassination was well received in France, as was his pardon of the French officers caught suspiciously beyond the frontier. Artistic intercourse has been resumed to a certain extent: the French painters exhibited at Munich last year and will exhibit at Berlin this year, and Wagner and Sudermann win triumphs at Paris. These mollifying influences have had the effect of leading many people to ask what real reason there is why Germany and France might not be good neighbors, and "symposia" on the subject have been printed almost simultaneously in the two countries—in the *Rundschau* and in the *Mercure de France*. Like most affairs of the kind, these gathered views of professors and publicists abound in general expressions of benevolence, but show their entire futility and radical divergence as soon as details are touched upon. Thus, Prof. Dahn of Breslau says there is no reason in the world why Germany should not be on good terms with France, only the French must get over their foolish notions of "revanche." That has been the trouble all along. After Waterloo it was "*revanche* for Waterloo," and after Sadowa it was revenge for Sadowa, and after Sedan it was revenge for Sedan. If the French would only learn to pardon the Germans for having beaten them, all would be well. Not at all, says M. Spronck; the French have no ill feeling against the Germans. This talk of an inextinguishable race hatred is all nonsense; only, we cannot stand, no self-respecting people can stand, the violent annexation of a portion of our territory. There you are! Each country is willing and anxious to be neighborly, but there is really no living with the other.

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THE INCOME-TAX DECISION.

THERE are several curious things about the income-tax decision. One is that, in the general opinion of the bar and the public, several decisions of the court had already settled that an income tax was not a direct tax but an excise, and by implication that Congress could, under the Constitution, call a tax anything it pleased, and that, therefore, the apportionment and uniformity restrictions of the Constitution had no particular value. So strongly was this opinion held that Mr. Carter did not think it necessary to say much about the law in his argument, but relied mainly on the sociological value of the tax, and the danger of interfering with the taxing prerogatives of Congress. Moreover, the public mind was deeply impressed with the idea that the court would on general grounds of policy never disapprove of any tax that Congress thought fit to enact, and that it rested with Congress to observe the constitutional limitations on its own powers. It now appears, however, that, in the opinion of six out of eight judges, the taxation of rents or income from land has, as a direct tax, not apportioned according to population, always been unconstitutional, and, more than this, that "in no previous decision of this court has this question been adjudicated to the contrary of this decision." So that the "stare decisis" bugbear goes at one fell swoop.

But now comes another anomaly. Of these six judges, two, Justices Shiras and Brown, held that a tax on rent or income of land was a direct tax, and therefore unconstitutional, but that a tax on income derived from any other source—labor, gains in trade, or interest on money invested in personalty—was not a direct tax, and as to these refused to find the law unconstitutional. As the court was equally divided on this matter, no opinion was written about it. But this is really a great misfortune, for there is nothing the public needs more than an account and explanation of this very distinction. If these gentlemen had said that Congress could make its own nomenclature for administrative purposes, and make a tax direct or indirect under the Constitution by merely giving it a name, our mouths would be closed. But they do not take this position. They say, as regards the rent of land, that it is the duty of the court to examine the nature of the income, and to see whether Congress has rightly named it or not, for purposes of taxation, and they found that Congress has here erred in its nomenclature. It would, therefore, be most interesting to hear from them why a tax on a salary, or on the interest on railroad bonds, or on money lent, is not a direct tax; what it is which enables Congress to follow up the man with a five-thousand-dollar salary and levy on him, while letting the ten-thousand-dollar land-income man go free. The silence of the court on this point may be technically proper, but it is, from a political point of view, damaging to the judges. Judges Brown and Shiras ought, for their own sakes, to seek some extra-judicial mode of letting light in on this mystery. It is causing much comment and much dissatisfaction and calling forth many uncomplimentary observations. The man who undertakes to show that a tax on income from any source is not a direct tax, has a very serious task before him, and cannot begin too soon.

The history of this tax, from its first appearance in Congress down to this moment, is one more very striking illustration of the folly of thinking or talking of taxation as a "science." The history of taxation from the earliest ages has been the history of the attempts of one class to make other classes pay the expenses, or an undue share of the expenses, of the Government. Aristocrats have always been trying to shift the taxes on to the people, and the people on to the aristocrats; the landed interest on to the commercial and the commercial on to the landed. There has not been a single instance of the coming together of a community to contrive a scheme of perfect fairness and equality for everybody. Every fiscal system the world has ever seen has been always in a state of convulsion through the efforts of some class of persons to prevent these taxes from being oppressive, or to make them unduly light. And no government has ever yet formally surrendered the claim of right to use taxation as a means of promoting or discouraging certain occupations, habits, tastes, and tendencies.

These notorious facts make our discussions of "scientific taxation" not exactly ludicrous, but extremely academic. Mankind is not ready, or half ready, for scientific taxation. Taxation in any particular case has to be judged by reference to the nature of the Government, the political habits of the people, and the relation of the different classes of which the community is composed to each other. No one can say whether any particular tax is good or bad till he knows who is to pay it and how it is to be collected. It may be said, *a priori*, that there is no civilized community less fit to-day for a direct income tax than the United States. It is a beautiful, scientific, Smithian tax, *in vacuo*. What it is in the very gross and palpable milieu in which we live, may be seen in the history of the tax which the Supreme Court passed on on Monday. It was concocted without notice by the highest legislature in the country, not so much to raise money as to punish certain people for being saving and successful and for holding odious views on currency. In the eagerness of its promoters to get it ready for purposes of persecution it was so loosely and hastily drawn as to be unworkable. When its constitutionality came to be examined by the Supreme Court, seven judges said one part of it was unconstitutional; six judges said another was unconstitutional; and they all divided evenly about the rest of it. So that if we said it had ended in national disgrace, we should not be far wrong.

CORPORATE METHODS.

THE references in the London *Economist* to the depreciation in the prices of securities owned in Great Britain, in which American bonds and shares are put in the same table with South American issues, leads naturally to a phase of the general subject that has had more than its due share of attention in England. We refer to the lack of confidence in our railway securities which the leading foreign financial periodicals are fond of attributing to fraud and mismanagement in the conduct of our railway companies.

It would be proper to challenge this oft-repeated statement of these London weeklies and ask how many railway bonds have been returned to us from this cause only. Foreign financial papers are often led astray in matters American. We know, for illustration, that all of them advised against the purchase of the recent issue of United States "coin" bonds. Scarcely a London paper spoke a favorable word; and yet the English investors, with an instinct more true than the fine-spun reasoning of their would-be advisers, subscribed for the amount of these coin bonds many times over, while the same bonds have since continued to advance in price in London. It seems difficult at times for the English financial writer to judge of financial and commercial matters in the United States.

We are far from wishing to say that fraud or dishonesty has not in some instances disgraced American corporate management, nor have we condoned such instances when made public. Yet two things may in fairness be said: first, that the majority of our corporations are well and honestly managed, according to the best judgment of the officers and directors, whose fault may be too great optimism as to business results; and, second, that what has been called mismanagement may in many cases be traced to the influence of our present critics, the Englishmen themselves. We need not go far to find illustrations. The present controversy in London over the affairs of the Grand Trunk Railway furnishes an example. That company has never been under American influence; its directors live in London and its officers have been wholly English; and yet the accountant reports that the Grand Trunk has systematically concealed its losses and overstated its income by carrying the deficits of its auxiliary roads as "loans" in its balance sheets—a trick supposed to be peculiarly American. It is also now shown that the Canadian Pacific, too, has in the past not stated its earnings correctly.

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Even where no direct charge of unfairness need be made, it has in our history often happened that a particular transaction under condemnation arose as a result of a policy formed abroad. The affairs of the Louisville and Nashville road have for years provided examples. At times this company has found itself obliged to sell its bonds at very low prices in order to meet a pressing need for money—crises which were forced upon the company by the demands of English holders of the shares that the accounting should be construed so as to take from operating expenses or from branch-line losses every dollar which could by any stretch of interpretation be called a charge to capital. In this way dividends were alleged to have been earned and the money borrowed, until the lack of ready cash and the declining credit forced such sacrifices as we have just mentioned. The Louisville and Nashville is now, under American advice, charging all small improvements to current expenses, and is deducting some long-standing fictitious branch-line assets from surplus revenue; a policy begun not a moment too soon. If this company had gone on as before, and if, as a consequence, the shares had in time become worthless, whose would the fault have been? Very likely we should have heard a great deal of talk about "the lack of confidence in American methods" which such a disaster would have called from the London financial editors. The Atchison disclosures are fresh in the public mind, and public indignation is still directed against those who were immediately guilty. But, going back of these, who might claim to have inherited a policy from their predecessors, shall we say that the blame should lie altogether on American shoulders?

The wishes of those who have furnished a good part of the capital to build American railways have always had an influence, sometimes a preponderating influence, upon American management. The general demand of these foreign investors has always been for the payment of all possible returns, no matter what the future consequences might be. An income or preference bond, whose dividends are admittedly contingent upon success, will be drawn (as in the Reading case) so as to allow no earnings to be used for any other purpose, no matter how necessary. An example of this spirit is the remarks made by a shareholder at the Canadian Pacific meeting in Montreal last week. This gentleman moved that the operating expenses be reduced to 50 per cent. of the gross earnings, that all high officials be retained without salary, and that no stipend higher than $500 or $1,000 per year be paid to anybody. This same shareholder further suggested that half the stock be changed into 4 per cent. debenture shares which should then receive a dividend. Shareholders are not often as foolish in their remarks as this one, but those who are familiar with corporation affairs know that a dividend, no matter how obtained or at what cost to the future, is too often the only object aimed at; and that this is particularly true of foreign shareholders. If, under the stress engendered by such a policy, the directors should cause statements to be put out showing a fictitious prosperity, in order that the payment of dividends should appear to have been justified, we may, without pardoning their offence, say that the facts of the case furnish the explanation of their conduct. Of course, no American railway officer or director should allow himself to be put in such a false position, but the blame for the after results of such a policy should be divided with the foreign or domestic share or bondholder who insists upon the payment of interest or dividends in the face of commercial facts.

WELSH DISESTABLISHMENT.

THE bill to disestablish the Anglican Church in Wales passed its second reading last week in the House of Commons by something more than the normal Liberal majority. This was a foregone conclusion. So is it that the bill will be thrown out incontinently by the Lords. More than one Conservative, when hard-pressed in the debate, fell back triumphantly upon "those in another chamber," who would see to it that the sacred cause, etc., no matter what the Commons might irreverently undertake. This new argument *a fortiori*—this taunting cry, "Well, you can't have it anyhow"—did not, however, serve to chill debate, which was warm and able on both sides. Though it is certain that the bill cannot become a law in this Parliament, its discussion brought out many characteristics of both religious and political life in Great Britain, and was far from being a mere beating of the air.

The argument for disestablishment was set forth by Mr. Asquith in a speech which Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, who followed him, was frank enough to call "an intellectual treat of no mean order." He began by showing that establishment in the strict sense of the term had been abandoned long ago in England. When heresy was a crime, and when a dissenter was exposed to every kind of civil and political disability, then there was an established church; but the moment the nation refused longer to support that kind of establishment, that moment it became a question only of expediency how much recognition should be given the church, and in what parts of the kingdom, by the law of the land. Now, here were the Welsh, by the test of segregation and language and tradition as separate a nationality as the Irish, demanding that what had been done for the Irish in 1869 should be done for them in 1895. That a great majority of the Welsh asked for this as an act of justice, there could be no doubt: thirty-one out of their thirty-four members of the House were there to speak to that point. The question was whether the law should continue to force three-quarters of the population of Wales to support an establishment to which they were hostile. It would be better for them, it would be better for the church, Mr. Asquith maintained, to grant their request.

The precedent of Irish disestablishment is a hard one for the Conservatives to get over. For the Irish bill even Lord Salisbury voted in 1869. The gloomy predictions made by the bishops then have distinctly failed of fulfilment. Ireland has not relapsed into heathenism, nor has the Anglican Church in Ireland vanished. On the contrary, it is stronger and richer than before disestablishment. One of the most effective retorts in the whole debate was the citation of the opinion of the Protestant Archbishop of Dublin, Lord Plunket, against his own brother. The latter, in a speech of old-fashioned and moving Irish eloquence, opposed the bill, but found it hard to explain why a measure which his brother, both as Bishop of Meath and Archbishop of Dublin, said had worked admirably for both people and church in Ireland, might not be expected to do the same in Wales. Lord Plunket affirmed that it was a peculiarly fortunate thing for religion that the church was not put in the position any longer of harrying Irish tenants for tithes at the same time the landlords were harrying them for rents.

The Conservative argument against the bill is made up of sentiment, of history, and of what we must call cant. For their sentimental attachment to the Established Church no one can blame them. Their fears that the next move will be against the establishment in England itself are not without justification. But the "entering-wedge" argument ought never to overbear considerations of present justice and political expediency. In history the Conservatives are mighty. The Welsh church is a national church, antedating the Reformation, and preserving an unbroken historical continuity. But if you say that the nation can do what it will with a national church, it instantly becomes, in Conservative hands, a private corporation. As one of the Liberal speakers humorously complained, when you talked of disestablishment, you were attacking a national church, but when you talked of disendowing, you were attacking private property. The canting argument was that venerable one, brought out again by Sir Edward Clarke amid the laughter of the House, that the establishment gave every Welshman the "right" to partake in the services of the church, and the privilege of "fairly and rightly claiming the consolations of the Christian religion." When one is able to point to many parishes where service is held only once a month, and where the audience is made up of the clerk, the sexton, the gamekeeper, and the servants of the squire—at the same time that dissenting

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churches in the same place are full to the doors—the attachment of the Welsh to this precious "right" can be guessed. They would surrender it without a struggle, and take their chances as to the consolations of religion.

Mr. Asquith's appeal to the independence and dignity of the church itself was finely conceived. How intolerable was it for a spiritual organization to be tied hand and foot in matters both of ritual and doctrine by the interpretations of secular courts! In this sentiment he was certainly at one with the choicer spirits in the church itself, as they have seen, during the past half-century, the subtle and delicate things of ecclesiastical teaching and practice profanely handled by lawyers. How Dean Church groaned over this state of things, his lately published correspondence shows. As for political influence, vastly more might be wielded by the church if disestablished. One of the speakers gave a Radical definition of the union of church and state. It was the system under which we kick the parsons; if the union was broken up, the parsons might kick us. But it is vain to expect disestablishment as yet. The accredited spokesmen of the church will prove again their title to the love of the people by voting against the Welsh bill, just as they voted against the abolition of slavery and the slave-trade, against the reform of the penal code, the reform of Parliament, Catholic emancipation, the civil liberty of dissenters, and almost every other measure which marks the political and moral progress of the century.

THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL REVIEW.

VARIOUS calls have of late made themselves heard, in the *Nation* and elsewhere, for a literary review—a sort of *North American Review* regenerate. Less public attention has been given to an equally distinct and perhaps more pressing need—that of a review devoted to pure history. Nobody knows precisely what "pure history" is: it appears to be the history that one is most interested in, in contradistinction to the history in which some other person is interested. Nevertheless, it is clear that there is no vehicle which conveys articles on history, as distinguished from economics, sociology, and political science. The transactions of learned societies are principally confined to their own members; the two economic journals and three reviews of political science offer a bare foothold to historical articles directly bearing upon their sciences. The illustrated magazines and the existing reviews subordinate history to other interests.

To be sure, there is always the *English Historical Review*, which one would as soon think of criticising as of criticising London Bridge: solid, substantial, useful, and mortal heavy—but the only thing of the kind in the English language. It, however, has not much relation with this country, its historians or history. If it be true, as Mr. Bryce is reported to have said, that in the United States is to be found the most active historical centre in the English-speaking world, that centre needs a mouthpiece. Such an agency has now been provided. Inasmuch as the proposed historical review is intended to be national in its character, and has already the support of a large number of representative men in all parts of the Union and in Canada, it seems suitable to set forth the plans that have just been formed.

The idea of such a review has lain in many minds; and a few weeks ago the historical departments of two universities, Cornell and Harvard, conceived at the same time and independently the plan of suggesting coöperation to others interested in history. The two tentative schemes were merged in a call signed by men representing six universities to meet in New York and discuss the question. Of the fifty persons addressed only two answered discouragingly, and a conference of twenty-six persons met on Saturday, April 6, in a room which the Reform Club kindly placed at their disposal. Most of the seaboard universities were represented, from Dartmouth to Pennsylvania; though only one delegate appeared from a Western university, letters were received from many institutions as far west and south as Texas and California, explaining that distance, and not lack of interest, prevented attendance. If there be other matters on which Yale and Harvard disagree, they fraternize on things intellectual; the Cornell lion and the Princeton lamb harmonize on history. Plainly the brotherhood of the colleges is advancing. Their connection with the literary work of history also grows stronger. Bancroft, Prescott, Hildreth, Parkman, Henry Adams, and Rhodes wrote their histories without direct connection with the colleges: Tuttle, McMaster, Winsor, and Von Holst have written in the midst of college work. Both classes were, however, represented in the conference. Five eminent historical scholars not connected with colleges were present, and others gave in their adhesion by letter.

The first troublesome question which the conference faced under the energetic chairmanship of Prof. Sloane was the financing of a review. The absolutely essential expenses of printing even a quarterly are considerable. No such periodical can flourish without the supervision of an able man, well paid for whatever time he finds it necessary to spend upon the review; to attract the best writers, payment must be assured for reviews and for some at least of the articles; and the cost of business management is to be reckoned in. To meet these necessary expenses various plans were suggested; it was felt that to insure the proper conduct of the Review, whatever publisher undertook it would reasonably expect a guarantee during the early years of the enterprise, and the conference therefore voted to raise two thousand dollars a year for a term of three years as a guarantee fund. Such pledges were at once made in behalf of the historical friends of several universities as to make it reasonably certain that the necessary sum will be speedily subscribed.

The question of management was also difficult. It is of first importance to invest the Review with a national character; on the other hand, it is essential to have a compact management, and to hold one person responsible for the details. The plan adopted includes both these advantages. The conference voted to create a board of advisory editors, to be responsible to the guarantors: that board to arrange for publication and to select a managing editor. The persons chosen for the preliminary term of one year were Profs. George B. Adams of Yale, McMaster of Pennsylvania, Sloane of Princeton, Morse Stephens of Cornell, and Hart of Harvard. A Western member is to be added. The choice of the managing editor has not yet been made, but it is expected speedily to pitch upon an active young man, well versed in history and experienced in book-making.

Out of several names suggested for the new quarterly, that of the *American Historical Review* was selected. It is understood that the new review will include contributions on any interesting field of history, and that it will recognize articles on contemporaneous events and institutions as historical, if written from the historical standpoint. In addition to the leading articles, hitherto unpublished documents will appear, both American and foreign. Especial attention will be given to reviews prepared by experts, both signed and unsigned, and to notes of current news about historians and their works and the historical activities of the universities.

That the *Review* will have the aid of able contributors is certain from the promises of support already received; that the guarantee fund will speedily be established is likewise probable; but final success must depend on the character of the work done, and the interest of the public in supporting a general historical periodical.

THE STUDY OF HISTORY AT OXFORD.

UNDOUBTEDLY the study of mediæval and modern history "flourishes," in a sense, at Oxford. During the last quarter of a century there has grown up a large "Honour School" (or Department) of Modern History (including therein mediæval); there are a score or more of hard-working history tutors who direct the studies of the "history men" in the several colleges and lecture to all comers; and every year more than a hundred men take their bachelor's degree "in history," commonly after two years' study in this particular field. And the School has gained not only in numbers, but also in academic respect. It undoubtedly still attracts a good many men who believe, with some reason, that it is easier to get a fourth-class in history than the pass degree; its numbers are swollen by the crowd of men who are practically coerced by their colleges into reading for "an honor degree," when probably it would do them more good to read for a pass. But it also appeals to an increasingly large number of really able men, especially among those who look forward to a political career; and it is not uncommon for men who have already distinguished themselves in some other department to seek additional honors in this. A first-class in history still ranks hardly so high in university opinion as a first in "Literæ Humaniores"—a department which combines classics and philosophy and ancient history in a manner theoretically unsatisfactory, but practically productive of some good results. But it certainly stands as high as a first in any other "school." It is, in fact, generally understood to imply not only ability, but also the acquisition of a solid body of definite knowledge.

The credit for this result is certainly due in part to the excellent tutors who have given themselves without stint to the work of instruction and organization. But that other causes have contributed may be readily seen from a comparison with Cambridge. The Cambridge History School, it is generally allowed, is by no means in so prosperous a condition. The chief explanation must be found in the fortunate dominance in Oxford of the influence of Dr. Stubbs, working in harmony with certain tendencies already strongly de-

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veloped in the University. Dr. Stubbs had, indeed, no aptitude for teaching large classes; his work was rather to provide the material upon which teachers might work. In 1870 appeared his volume of 'Select Charters and Other Illustrations of English Constitutional History'; in 1872 the School of Modern History began its independent existence, apart from Law; in 1874 appeared the first volume of Dr. Stubbs's 'Constitutional History.' Now, in the School of Literæ Humaniores, or "Greats," as it is expressively called—in which most of the history tutors had received their training—the work of students had long centred in the exact and even verbal mastery of prescribed classical texts. There was an unconscious desire for something of the same sort in the new historical teaching; and with one accord the tutors fell upon the 'Select Charters.' Ever since, while English constitutional history has constituted the most important portion of the work of the School, the backbone of the constitutional history has been the 'Select Charters'—though it comes no later than the reign of Edward I. The interleaved and underlined 'Charters' found a congenial place by the side of the interleaved and underlined 'Ethics.' The fears which had been entertained lest the brilliant "essay" should give its tone to the School could now slumber; history became as exact a study as old-fashioned classical scholarship could demand; and Oxford was content. The subsequent development of the School has continued to be marked by like characteristics. In foreign history "special subjects" are set before the more ambitious students to choose among, and in each there are prescribed texts; even in political philosophy there are prescribed authors.

Far be it from us to condemn the exact study of original documents: it is, indeed, the beginning of wisdom. Before we let a student talk at large about the significance of Magna Carta, we may very properly ask him to show that he has read it; and, as it chances, the grammatical sense of its clauses is a matter about which it is a good deal easier to be sure than about their practical effect. But it is a pity when the study of a certain set of documents, however carefully selected, is held to dispense the student from further inquiry. And this has unquestionably been the case at Oxford. Anxious to get good "classes" for their men for the sake of their college, knowing that an intelligent consideration of the prescribed texts will suffice for that purpose, and fearing that there may not be time for anything else, tutors have, as a rule, refrained from suggesting anything else. And, accordingly, every year students obtain the highest honors Oxford has to give who have never so much as seen the outsides of Domesday, or the Hundred Rolls, or the Statutes of the Realm, or Madox, or Rymer, or Dugdale, or Ducange.

But to understand the present position of historical studies in Oxford one other important factor must be noticed, and that is the tutorial system. During the last thirty or forty years the tutorial system—itself the outcome of reform and academic earnestness—has become an engine of extraordinary power and velocity. With higher requiremen s for the examinations, with acuter rivalry among the colleges for distinction in the examinations, there has been a constant tendency for the hard-driven tutor to lose the ardor of science in the practical needs of the schoolmaster. And, of course, to such a teacher a neatly rounded body of doctrine, respectable for the authorities it relied on, was a great convenience. Out of the three majestic volumes of Dr. Stubbs's 'Constitutional History'—in spite of the uncertain sound they gave on some matters of importance—was rapidly collected a comparatively simple set of facts and formulæ. To piece them out for more recent centuries, recourse was had to the material so easily accessible in Hallam and Erskine May; and the edifice was complete.

We have been insensibly led into these observations by turning over the pages of Mr. Medley's new 'Manual of English Constitutional History,' already briefly noticed in these columns. It is an excellent specimen of the present Oxford style of approaching history, both in its merits and in its weaknesses. It is stuffed full of facts well chosen and arranged; it is severely business-like—no rhetoric here! And he who, driven by the thirst for a "first," "gets it up," will have laid an excellent foundation. On the other hand, it approaches so nearly to being the Dictionary of Institutions—each taken separately and traced chronologically—which the author longs for, that the student who trusted to this alone would have no inkling of the actual working of the institutional machinery at any one period. For, while it is true that we cannot understand an institution without knowing its earlier and later history, it is equally true that we cannot understand it without knowing its relation to contemporary conditions. Still, the weaknesses of the volume are almost redeemed by the quite new interest which is shown in recent historical work outside tutorial lines. On several fundamental points Mr. Medley does what would hardly have been dreamed of a few years ago—gives a fair statement of opposing arguments, and attempts a judicial balance. It is significant that almost all the names of living scholars cited by him belong to men outside the tutorial circle. Perhaps a period is approaching of Reconstruction. Hitherto, however, the office of Oxford has been to hand on "the deposit of faith"; and we are not altogether without fear that even a reformed constitutional history may prove pliable to tutorial exigencies.

POLITICAL STAGNATION.

London, March 21, 1895.

There must be some incentive to the present extraordinary interest in the life of Napoleon, apart from the recent publication of memoirs relating to his times. Might we not suggest the longing of the human mind for something decided, for something dramatic, to consider and rest upon, in the present platitude of political and social affairs? There is no great hope now vividly before the civilized world; there is now no great personality from whom much appears to be expected; and there have been bitter disappointments and disillusionings. Few could now sing with the enthusiasm prevalent in the forties of the "good time coming." The preparations for war are greater than they ever were before. Cries for economy and retrenchment carry few with them. The great manufacturing centres of England, once the nursing-homes of Liberalism, are hotbeds of Conservatism. Affairs in Italy are a disappointment. Few now feel, as did Mr. Bradlaugh and others twenty-five years ago, that republicanism is at all imminent in these countries. Neither France nor Brazil is an encouragement to immediate change, however much we may feel assured that republicanism is the only principle upon which states can in the future safely rest.

Great economic principles, again, are questioned to a degree that they do not appear to have been a quarter of a century ago. Who could have believed, in the fervor of the free-trade agitation under Bright and Cobden, that protection fifty years thence would fetter commerce in some respects more firmly than ever—especially in the free colonies of the mother of free trade? We are compelled to the sad conclusion that it was self-interest and not principle that carried free trade—for since then in British communities no abstract economic principles appear sufficient to withstand the force of supposed self-interest. I know of scarcely anything more discouraging on this side of late years—anything more illustrative of the truth that life upon all points must be a perpetual contest, that humanity can never hope to rest on its oars and glide down the stream of time in happy unison regarding any great principle—than the establishment within the last few months of the Bimetallic League, a powerful organization, numbering among its vice-presidents and upon its executive council scores of members of Parliament, many of them most able and clear-sighted.

There is, however, no warrant for our taking a pessimistic view of human affairs. Men and women were, upon the whole, never freer and happier. But, being freer and happier, they are not generally progressing on the lines anticipated by ardent reformers. If there is more temperance than formerly, there are more intoxicants consumed, the interests concerned in their production and distribution are more powerful than ever. The publication of newspapers has vastly increased, yet a larger proportion than ever of those newspapers is devoted to sport and betting. Here, at least, judging by such newspapers, fifty are interested in a cricket-match in Australia for one really concerned regarding the atrocities perpetrated in Armenia—atrocities for which, by its support of the Power that commits them, this country is primarily responsible. There can be no more striking exemplification of the current political deadness than the calmness with which news of the events now proceeding under Turkish rule is received. The *Speaker* writes:

"When we look back to 1876, and recall the great uprising of public opinion in that year, and compare it with the lethargy which prevails to-day, we are filled with surprise. . . . The motive for it is just as great as it was in 1876. The same cruelties are going on, and they are going on now, as they went on then, because English statesmen and the English people have made it possible for the Turks to commit them."

The indefiniteness of the result of the last election here may have something to do with the present depression and apparent hopelessness. Parties have been so nearly balanced. Only such reforms have been carried as the Conservatives did not vehemently oppose. Mr. Balfour's or Mr. Chamberlain's utterances upon any subject affect more its ultimate acceptance or rejection than anything that can be said by Sir William Harcourt or Mr. Morley. The Conservatives exercise their influence principally through the Lords; but public opinion has not shown any disposition effectively to deal with the constitutional powers of the Lords. The ultimate effect of Liberal measures passed for Great Britain generally appears to be to turn the beneficiaries into Conservatives. The recent County Council elections are a remarkable illustration of this tendency.

Mr. Parnell's fall and the subsequent divisions in the Irish ranks have had a depressing effect. We miss Mr. Gladstone's strength and buoyancy and lofty breadth of view. The

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Liberal leaders have set the pace rather by their more cautious than by their advanced and energetic adherents. The increase of the electorate, the congested condition of Parliamentary business, the power of the "interests," the labor question, have further tended to induce a feeling of helplessness and lassitude. Under a restricted franchise it appeared possible to reach the electors regarding any great question, concerning any great wrong. The task of rousing public opinion is now almost herculean. Formerly it was sufficient to win a few great centres. Now the electors must be followed into every hamlet and every local gathering—with the possibility that, after all is said, some local interest, some local whim, may prove more powerful in influencing votes than the finest principles best expounded. The defective constitution of Parliament for the despatch of business must before long make itself apparent to all: six hundred and seventy men, every one of them with the power of having his finger in every other's pie; three principal nations, aggregating thirty-eight millions, with different histories, different customs, different religions, different laws, generally legislated for by separate acts; the representatives of two lounging in the lobbies, smoking-rooms, libraries, and at the bars while the affairs of the third are being discussed, and then voting not according to knowledge, but in answer to party exigencies, personal friendships, or political and religious prejudices; a Parliament responsible for the life, liberty, and happiness of three hundred millions of the human race in India. "We are all members for India," complacently declares the secretary for that continent, in answer to an appeal that there should be some influential native representative on the Indian Council; yet when the affairs of India come up for discussion, these, her members, clear out and leave decisions on the most vital questions mainly to officials and ex-officials. There is an entire absence of proportion in the time and attention given to affairs. Parliament is becoming more and more paralyzed. The individual member is increasingly helpless. All this has a deadening and depressing effect on the public mind and conscience. Parliament may be in some respects ahead of other legislative assemblies in the world, but that is no reason for the neglect of reform where reform is necessary.

The "interests" are more powerful than ever—more upon the alert and better organized. We must recognize that with most men the chance of material loss or gain to them or their class or their descendants is a stronger impetus to political action than principle. Modern economic conditions have largely increased the profits derived from breweries and distilleries; the conversion of so many of them into limited-liability companies has extended the number of those sharing their profits. The prospect of disestablishment in Wales and Scotland brings the enemy very near the door of those interested in the maintenance of the vastly more important English establishment. The liquor interest and the Church are more than ever inclined to range themselves against the party of reform.

But if the selfishness of the classes tends to clog the wheels of progress and breed discouragement, no less so does the selfishness of the interests among the masses. It cannot be doubted that the withdrawal from the field of many able and once hopeful friends of progress after the next dissolution will be due to the difficulty of accepting principles now so largely in the ascendant regarding labor. Trade interests are, with too many, taking the place of considerations as to general interests. As I lately talked with one of the most enlightened and by disposition hopeful members from the north of England upon this subject, he deplored the decadence in public feeling. "Intelligent artisans of the best type, who used to be stanch supporters of Liberalism in the aggregate, are more and more shutting themselves off into the narrowness of trade and sectional affairs." This was, in truth, to have been expected. Reformers had no warrant for the belief that when the masses learned to read they would not at first prefer the sporting papers and *Police News* to the publications of the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge; that when they came into their heritage of power and influence they would be less likely than their superiors in education and refinement to use their position for their own immediate gain.

These considerations must not discourage us. They are, however, arguments against littleness in politics, against delusive expectations that anything great can be accomplished except through steady work, to which no part of the mind or conscience should be sacrificed; except through the people at large really being worthy of, really desiring, those changes desired for them. If the individual becomes of less and less account in the progress of the race, the occasions become fewer and fewer upon which there are calls to dash ourselves individually against the bars of circumstance. We are each bound to do our part—there are fewer and fewer occasions for complete sacrifice.

The fate and fortunes of Ireland partake in the general apparent stagnation. There are splits and differences where once appeared an unbroken phalanx. The force of individual, trade, and class interests is apparent there as well as here. The country is improving everywhere under recent and expected land reform. I cannot recollect the trading classes in Dublin ever being more generally prosperous, there being fewer unoccupied residences in the suburbs. The opinions of those are unchanged who, through the past twenty-five years, have taken a prominent part in the struggle for home rule. Some are growing old; others are being broken down. As yet young Ireland is not showing much disposition to throw itself into the contest. It appears more interested in amusement. All depends and should depend upon the Irish people at large. If they have not the vigor to compel efficient cohesion, to fill gaps in the ranks, to keep up supplies, no amount of eagerness and devotion on the part of a few can carry the movement to success. The British Liberals have redeemed their pledges. The British people are showing much the same apathy regarding the Irish as on other questions of general importance. It remains with the Irish people at home and abroad to dispel this apathy. The modern study of sociology tranquillizes if it cools. Causes and leaders are what their supporters make them.

D. B.

Correspondence.

TRUST THE PEOPLE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Until lately Chicago has been rather a doleful place for any man who believed in decent municipal government. The spoils system has flourished in a truly wonderful way from a time whereof the memory of man runneth not to the contrary, and it had become second nature to the average Chicagoan, on learning that a person had been appointed to a place in the city administration, not to inquire what his qualifications were, judged from ordinary business standpoints, but to wonder what primary the appointee had manipulated and for whom. A position like that of oil inspector, for instance, had always been determined, not by the applicant's knowledge of such sublunary matters as chemistry, etc., but by his "influence." Knowledge of political, not molecular, pull got the job. We had been brought up to believe that any man not a jabbering idiot could fill the position of sealer of weights and measures well enough; positions in the Health Department did not imply knowledge of medicine to any preëminent extent, and subordinate positions in the Law Department could be filled by any useful quasi-shyster who could be kept out of sight enough not to "hoodoo" his party. A sidewalk inspector ought, of course, to be able to see a hole in the ground, and a building inspector should, all things being equal, be able to see a difference between a brick and a handsaw; but it was no use in practical politics to put too fine a point on that sort of thing. With the help of the army and an occasional hanging jury, we managed to "grub" along.

The public had so patiently tolerated these abominations of misgovernment and incompetency that it seemed to be a fair inference that the public was satisfied. Of course, candidates of both parties made the usual profuse ante-election promises of a clean business administration, based on merit appointment alone—"catering to the better element," with the familiar post-election results. Administrations came and went, but the spoils system went on, seemingly for ever, until a few days ago, when the question was squarely submitted to the voters whether they wished municipal civil-service reform and decent government or not. The answer was overwhelmingly, "Yes." Fortunately the question was not complicated with "patriotism"; neither party undertook to twist the British lion's tail, and the American flag was not waved. To one familiar with American politics, such an omission seemed a little strange, but, so far as I am aware, it is strictly true. It was probably an oversight, however. Truly God moves in a mysterious way.

Reformers in Chicago had preached for many years to unwilling ears the advantages of civil-service reform, and some had become disheartened; but it is a satisfaction to an honest believer in democracy to feel that, after all, it is safe to trust to the good sense of the average American voter, when the issue is squarely brought before him. Ideas percolate slowly through his brain, but they do percolate. A simple but unfamiliar idea, when properly presented and reinforced by experience, requires about five years for a permanent lodgment in the popular mind; an idea like the tariff, when complicated by side issues like self-conceit (in the form of spurious patriotism) or fear (like the pauper-labor or the spurious-document dodge), requires about twice that time. Still, Lincoln was probably right in his reputed saying that it is impossible to fool all the people all the time.

E. L. M.

Chicago, April 4, 1895.

THE COLUMBUS ELECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your editorial note of April 4, commenting on the spring elections in Ohio, you say: "Monday's elections indicated the reac-

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tion against the A. P. A. movement which was sure to occur. Columbus has been the chief seat of the propaganda in Ohio, and the Republicans this week paid the penalty of encouraging the craze."

This is hardly correct. Along with many other cities, Columbus has felt the effects of the moral upheaval in New York, and has had this winter a Taxpayers' League and a Good Government Club—both active, and of course non-partisan. At the primary elections, neither party nominated a candidate for mayor that was acceptable to the reformers, and the natural result was an independent candidate, a tried and trusty city official, who was fully and definitely pledged to all the desirable things. He succeeded in getting enough votes to defeat the Republican candidate, and to elect, not himself, but—the Democrat. It was a hotly contested campaign, on account of the nearly absolute power which the mayor will possess, and the bitterness naturally developed by a triangular fight; but the A. P. A. movement played a very insignificant part, for this time at least. JOSIAH RENICK SMITH.

COLUMBUS, O., April 6, 1895.

IN THE GUIANA FOREST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I was rather amused at reading the concluding part of your notice of my 'In the Guiana Forest' in the *Nation* of February 21. As I did not write a book of travels, it was not necessary to state "when the author's wanderings took place," or on what particular rivers and creeks he had "journeyed." The subtitle states that the book contains "Studies of Nature," and I have yet to learn that maps and dates are absolutely needed to elucidate such "Studies." Then, again, your reviewer states that "the book must be regarded as a poem rather than as a sober contribution to natural history." Possibly it may be a poem, but I hope it is something more. It is the result of twenty-five years' observation of nature in Guiana, not of a few weeks' or months' scampering over the ground. As one who has studied nature in England before coming to the tropics, I may affirm that the South American forest is a revelation. If I am too enthusiastic and a dreamer, put this down as the result of environment.

Yours truly, J. RODWAY.

GEORGETOWN, BRITISH GUIANA, March 19, 1895.

[The above letter gives place and date. Our complaint was that the book noticed lacked those very elements of definiteness which are usually found in every "sober contribution to natural history," and which especially characterize Darwin's 'Journal of a Voyage.'—ED. NATION.]

POOR PAPER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Is it not time, and may it not presently be too late, to protest against the *wretched paper* which is now made for almost every use? It is not simply that our books and periodicals are printed on paper which tears at the least strain, and turns brown under a slight exposure to the sun, but you can hardly put up a bundle in ordinary wrapping-paper but it shall crack and tear under your hand. Already the librarians are warning us that the books of this generation will not survive to the middle of the next century because of the wretchedness of the paper, and only by careful handling can we get through our weeklies and monthlies without tearing them. When competition among paper-makers or among publishers issues in such results, is it not an intolerable nuisance?—Respectfully yours, H. D. C.

EASTPORT, ME.

A GRAMMAR-DICTIONARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Graglia's Italian Dictionary, universally used fifty years ago, contains all the essentials of Italian grammar, the book itself being a small quarto. My own copy was published in Paris in 1834, but there are later editions. It is possible to read all the classics helped by it alone, and it would be an admirable model if dictionaries of other languages are in contemplation.—Yours very truly,

CAROLINE H. DALL.

WASHINGTON, April 4, 1895.

Notes.

HENRY M. STANLEY'S 'My Early Travels and Adventures'; Froude's 'English Seamen of the Sixteenth Century'; 'The Revolution of 1848,' by Imbert de Saint Amand; 'Comparative Religion,' by Prof. Allan Menzies; 'How the Republic is Governed,' by Noah Brooks; and a 'Laboratory Guide for the Dissection of the Cat,' are in the press of Charles Scribner's Sons.

Among the spring announcements of D. Appleton & Co. are a 'Handbook of Birds of Eastern North America,' by Frank M. Chapman; 'Familiar Flowers of Field and Garden,' by F. Schuyler Mathews; 'Actual Africa,' by Frank Vincent; 'A Story of Primitive Man,' by Edward Clodd; 'The Beginnings of Writing,' by W. J. Hoffman; 'The Art of Newspaper-Making,' by Charles A. Dana; 'The Female Offender,' by Prof. Lombroso; 'General Sheridan,' by Gen. Henry E. Davies; and 'An Aide-de-Camp of Napoleon' (Memoirs of the Baron de Ségur).

From G. P. Putnam's Sons will issue 'The Ancient Egyptian Doctrine of the Immortality of the Soul,' by Prof. A. Wiedemann; 'Yale Yarns,' by John S. Wood; and 'Doctor Izard,' by Anna Katharine Green.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will bring out 'Explorations in the Mississippi Basin,' by Justin Winsor, and 'Critical Sketches of Federal and Confederate Commanders,' by John C. Ropes and others.

Miss Abby L. Alger's translation of Mme. Blanc's observations in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* on this country will be published by Roberts Bros., under the title, 'The Condition of Woman in the United States.'

Macmillan & Co. have well under way a new edition of Wordsworth in sixteen volumes of the "Eversley Series," edited by Prof. Knight of St. Andrews, and to embrace the poems and the prose works, Wordsworth's letters and his sister's, and her journals.

Ginn & Co. announce for August a 'First Book in Political Economy,' for the use of schools and high schools, by Robert Ellis Thompson.

'Merrie England: A Plain Exposition of Socialism,' by Robert Blatchford of London, will be issued directly by the Commonwealth Co., New York.

Sixteen years ago Mrs. Salis Schwabe published in French her 'Reminiscences of Richard Cobden.' The work is now to appear in English, with the imprint of T. Fisher Unwin.

The third centenary of the death of Tasso will be celebrated in Italy with especial honors on the 25th of the present month. Many publications are announced for this occasion, among which are some of exceptional importance. The 'Vita,' long ago completed by Sig. Angelo Solerti, will be published by Loescher of Turin, in three octavo volumes. A critical edition of the 'Gerusalemme,' prepared under the direction of Sig. Solerti, with a wholly new commentary and a newly established text, will be brought out in a double edition, one *de luxe* and one popular, by Barbèra at Florence. And, lastly, the third volume of the *opere minori* of the poet, in the edition which has been begun by Zanichelli of Bologna, will make its appearance. This will be edited by Prof. Carducci, and will contain Tasso's plays.

Mr. Percy Pinkerton has had in mind the general reader rather than the scholar in preparing the volume entitled 'Matteo Bandello: Twelve Stories, selected and done into English with a Memoir of the Author' (London: John C. Nimmo). The heavy paper, the handsome typography, the olive-green binding are all appeals to the æsthetic rather than the learned eye. The literary workmanship also is of the same order. The pleasant, diffuse, vague, and unprecise memoir is unhappily of a piece with much modern English writing—*belletristisch*, the Germans contemptuously call it. The translation does not attempt to render the Italian closely or exactly, yet is in the main easy and readable. Where so small a number of stories must be selected from so many (twelve from two hundred and fourteen), there will necessarily be opportunity for difference of opinion on this point. We ourselves, for example, should certainly have included the gracious tale of Anselmo Salimbeni and Angelica Montanini (*Novelle*, i., 49), in preference to several given by Mr. Pinkerton. There is, however, but one indispensable story in the collection—the immortal one of Romeo and Juliet (*Novelle*, ii., 9)—and this we find here. Perhaps then, since the complete version of Bandello's tales, made by Mr. John Payne for the Villon Society, is far too rare and too expensive to be generally accessible, Mr. Pinkerton's volume may serve a useful purpose in introducing English readers to the manner of a writer who interested Shakspere, and who, despite his frequent grossness, had unusual art in so telling his stories that the plots should not be mere intrigues, nor the characters mere psychological scrap-bags.

Both parts of "King Henry IV." with "King Richard II.," in the delectable Dent-Macmillan pocket edition, have reached us; and the latter firm sends us also a new uniform edition of Rudyard Kipling's 'Prose Tales,' in six volumes, including 'The Naulahka,' in which the late Wolcott Balestier collaborated. 'The Light That Failed' makes another volume, while the remaining four consist of several tales. The typography is fair and open, and a blue-cloth cover, freely gilt, commends itself in point of taste.

We need only mention the appearance of the 'Statesman's Yearbook' for 1895 (Macmillan), whose years, numbering thirty-two, sufficiently speak for it. The list of non-official publications concerning this country has been pretty well purged, but there are still some titles that could be spared to make way for Schouler's 'History of the United States,' the only continuous history of the Republic up to the civil war (and that limit will presently be

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overcome). And Mr. James F. Rhodes deserves to have his first initial supplied in the line which designates his important work on the Republic in the second half of the present century.

The forty-second volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) ends with Owen, leaving perhaps a few names under the letter O to be carried over to the next volume. It is remarkably rich in names connected with this country, and two of the most interesting articles in the whole volume are those by Leslie Stephen on Laurence Oliphant and Robert Owen, the philanthropist. The Welsh socialist is summed up by Mr. Stephen as "one of those intolerable bores who are the salt of the earth." Further: "His son says that he was so like Brougham in person that he might have been taken for him; but, with a vanity as great as Brougham's, he had what Brougham unfortunately wanted—the power of making even his vanity subsidiary to his principles." The sketch of Robert Dale Owen is brief, and from another hand; it unjustly charges upon his legislation securing independent rights of property to married women a share in producing "the reprehensible laxity of Indiana legislation on divorce." Oglethorpe, the founder of Georgia; John Oldham, a New England worthy; Andrew Oliver, the Tory Lieutenant-Governor of Massachusetts, with Thomas Oliver, who built "Elmwood," the future home of Lowell; and the Fenian John Boyle O'Reilly, are other American personages of distinction. The naturalist Richard Owen is treated rigidly, with small allowances for his narrownesses.

Under the sounding title 'The Building of a Nation' (New York: The Henry T. Thomas Co.), Mr. Henry Gannett presents a miscellaneous collection of maps, diagrams, figures, and comparisons, bearing upon our political, financial, and industrial history. Those who have occasion to use a compend of this kind will probably prefer to take their statistics plain, as they find them in such manuals as the '*Tribune* Almanac,' rather than in the menstruum here provided; especially as Mr. Gannett's figures are now nearly five years behind the times, being for the most part derived from the discredited census of 1890. We quote with surprise the author's judgment upon our pension payments, of which he says; "Regarded purely as an investment, without considering its sentimental aspect, this money has been wisely spent."

From Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. we have 'Hull-House Maps and Papers,' by residents of a social settlement of that name in Chicago. Taking Mr. Booth's great work upon the poor of London as a standard, we are unable to attach any scientific value to this crude mass of materials. In spite of the benevolent motives impelling the authors of these papers, we fear that they may be doing more harm by persuading the poor among whom they labor that they are the victims of social oppression than they can do good by their lectures and clubs. The settlement appears to have been active in procuring the passage of the law in restraint of the right to labor, recently declared unconstitutional by the Illinois courts, and to be thoroughly imbued with the sentiment that in questions of wages no bread is better than half a loaf. While it may be necessary to prevent by law the overworking of children, it is certainly unjust to deprive them of their means of support without supplying some resource in its place. To charge those who accept lower wages "in order to buy comforts for an invalid child, or to add to the earnings of an aged father," with "crime" against their fellow-workers, indicates rather inadequate preparation on the part of the social guide.

From Brentano's comes a useful and curious little publication, 'Nos Artistes: Portraits et Biographes' (Paris: Librairie de l'Annuaire Universel). A page is allotted in alphabetical sequence to each actor or singer in theatre, opera, or concert, a portrait vignette being followed by a brief history of his or her career. The higher stage comes first, and then the cafés-concerts, circuses, and divers other shows. Less than a dozen biographies are grouped without portraits, but some forty of the profession declined to furnish the necessary particulars concerning themselves and be included in the gallery. At the end are some convenient lists of officers of the Dramatic Mutual Relief Association and the Playwrights' Association, of the danseuses of the National Academy of Music, the associates of the Comédie-Française, the wearers of the decoration of the Legion of Honor, etc., etc. New Yorkers will here meet Calvé, Melba, Eames, Van Zandt, the Reszkés, Nilsson, Sibyl Sanderson, the Coquelins, Réjane, etc. The American singers and actresses are not a few. The women in general boldly give the year and often the exact date of their birth, but some are silent as to that and as to their origin. One begins abruptly by telling of her début at the café-concert. Mme. Crosnier (1820), Mme. Laurent (1825), Mme. Brohan (1833) are among the veterans of the stage, active or retired. The address of each personage is given, and commonly the name of the photographer of the portrait reproduced.

Speaking of the elder Coquelin, who has just been sued by the Comédie-Française, from which he has retired, he was allowed his share of the *fonds sociaux* which the Comédie challenged his title to, for breach of contract. But his right to act at pleasure elsewhere in his retirement was denied by the court, which relied on "l'article 85 du décret de Moscou," which forbids every "*sociétaire retraité*," under a penalty, to play in any Paris theatre without the permission of the minister of fine arts. This was not abrogated by the decree of 1864.

The *Citizen*, published monthly in Philadelphia by the American Society for the Extension of University Teaching, has now reached its second number. It is significantly in line with the large number and variety of journals lately sprung into existence for the sake of promoting "good government," as well as with the socialistic aspiration and movement of the day, while yet keeping its eye mainly on the diffusion of culture among the masses. As such it is entitled to every one's sympathy, and to support according to one's faith in the efficacy of the machinery or the attainability of the end in view.

A recent visit to the mountain republic of Andorra is described in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for March. The travellers were obliged to ride from Ax, the terminus of the French railway, mule-paths being still the only means of communication between the six parishes of which it is composed and the outside world. The people, with few exceptions, are poor, and, though cultivating carefully all the available arable land, live mainly on the produce of their flocks and herds. Wealth, however, is apparently within their grasp, for the republic is "rich in iron and lead." They refuse to have these natural resources developed for fear that it would lead to absorption by France. They prefer their independence with poverty to riches and subjection. Commander Keane, in an account of the lower Zambesi, emphasizes the importance to Great Britain of this waterway, in connection with the lakes, into the heart of Africa.

An encouraging account of the progress and prospects of the British Central Africa Protectorate is given by the commissioner, Mr. H. H. Johnston, in the March *Geographical Journal*. The disordered condition of the country in 1891 is briefly described, together with the manner in which the raiding tribes were subdued and the slave-trade suppressed. Among the results of peace are the building of roads for wheeled traffic, a regular postal service between the different settlements, and the construction of a telegraph line. Courts of justice have been established, and the once hostile Yaos are being turned into excellent policemen. The natives, freed from the fear of the slave-hunters, travel hundreds of miles in order to work in the plantations or to settle in the neighborhood of the stations. In one district their number has increased from one thousand to ten thousand since 1891. The cultivation of wheat, sugar-cane, and tobacco has been successfully introduced, and there are now over five million coffee-trees in the Shire Highlands, the greater part being derived from a plant sent from Edinburgh about sixteen years ago. The trade of the country has risen from $100,000 to more than half a million. Mr. H. Yule Oldham's lucid statement in the *Journal* of his theory of a pre-Columban discovery of America by the Portuguese in 1447, based on a map of Andrea Bianco, is not convincing, and the almost unanimous verdict of the experts is "Not proven." Capt. H. Bower gives an interesting account of his adventurous trip to Chinese Turkistan, in the course of which he was shown an underground city made by tunnelling the high banks of a river. In it were found "some sheets of birch bark covered with writing in a Sanskritic character, and held together by two boards." These, fortunately, he bought, as they are believed to be among "the most ancient Asiatic manuscripts in existence." What their subject is he neglects to mention.

Games are, we presume, still employed as a memoriter exercise in history, literature, and language, and that they are still manufactured is shown by "The Table Game" of Hélène J. Roth, designed "to familiarize pupils with the names of everything that is placed on the [French] dining-room table," and by F. S. Zoller's "Das Deutsche Litteratur-Spiel"—both published by W. R. Jenkins.

—The second number of the *Sun*, the new Japanese magazine, comes from Tokyo, with twelve pages in English and over two hundred in Japanese, with an abundance of woodcut and half-tone illustrations and a rich freight of timely and able articles. Prof. Tsubouchi furnishes a thoughtful paper, marked by great erudition, upon the influence of the war upon literature. He shows that the outbursts of literary activity and the great books which usually follow a great war are indirect and collateral, rather than direct and immediate, results of vast military activity. In discussing the great commercial war of Asia, Prof. Iida warns his countrymen against the dangers which beset them on the conclusion of peace. It has been easy enough, he argues, to beat China at arms; but it will not be at all easy to excel the Chinese in trade, for the Chinaman is naturally and by long practice a thorough business man, while the Japanese are not, being mere tyros. After the war fever is over, there is danger that China will com-

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pletely conquer Japan commercially. Prof. Kumé, whose paper is a literary gem, discusses the relations between the caste system and ideal manhood. In Old Japan there were two general classes, *kun-shi*, or scholars, and *shojin*, men of low degree. These terms are, however, only relative. It is because the Japanese have already partially broken the old caste system, throwing open nearly all social, educational, and political facilities and privileges, without regard to class, that Japan has beaten China in the war. He therefore urges that the relics of caste be allowed to fall into oblivion, that ideal manhood be cultivated, and that every soul, high and low, do something to make himself worthy of the name of man. His paper is not only a plea for democracy, but a pretty clear proof of how society is moving in "Everlasting Great Japan."

—In the interesting paper on literary men of the Meiji era (1868-1895+), we have a list of the names of 54 novel-writers, 75 poets in the Japanese, and 104 in the Chinese style, 61 essayists, and 23 newspaper *feuilletonistes*, whose works have won the greatest popularity. In the list of native authors who compose in the new or European style of poetry, we have 21 names, among whom we recognize several graduates of Cornell and other American universities. One lady writer, Mrs. Miyagi, writes what we might call an impressionist story of Japanese life, using a new kind of vernacular that bothers the orthodox native of Nippon as much as Couperus and his innovating confrères in Holland vex their fellow-Dutchmen. The names of eight Japanese who write habitually in English (the English portion of the magazine being furnished by them, and, we must say, in excellent form) are also given. In the list of popular books written during 1894 we find that almost all of the two or three score concern themselves with the fact or fiction of the war now in progress. Connected with the short paper, in English, on the study of political economy in Japan, we have a list of associations, publications, prevailing economic views, and a table of writers of the last and the present century, with their books and opinions classified, which gives an excellent bird's-eye view of the problem of economic thought in Japan. Other Japanese articles treat of biography, history, geography, fiction, fine arts, religion, politics, and divers other matters. Should the ability displayed in these two numbers of the *Sun* be maintained, Japan bids fair to be one of the literary rivals in the world's republic of letters. Hakubunkwan, Tokyo, is the publisher.

—'George Washington, Day by Day' (New York: Cycle Publishing Co.) has been compiled by Miss Elizabeth Bryant Johnston with the good intention of making the man better known. The method is that used in preparing a "literary calendar." For each day of the year three or four extracts from Washington's letters or diaries, or some experience dated or happening on that day, are given; and between each group of extracts is quoted some opinion of the man's life and character, taken from essayists and orators. The whole makes a quarto volume of more than 200 pages, and a few prints add an attractive feature. The matter, however, is often of the most trivial character, and the combination so haphazard as to give no sequence or suggestion of connection. Opening the book at February 25, we find the following entries: 1779, an extract from Thacher's 'Military Journal' descriptive of Washington; 1790, Washington's removal to a house on Broadway; 1795, nomination of Habersham to be Postmaster-General. This is neither biography nor history; and the reader will obtain a very confused idea of the man and of his thoughts or actions. Want of care is very apparent throughout. John Davison, an Indian trader, is made the "Half-King of the Mingoes." There was a half-king, but he was of the Senecas, and was called Thanacrishon. We do not recognize the *Marquis* de la Luzerne, or one Murilles, mentioned more than once. General "Heorth" is a bad typographical error, and "Secretary James Madison," recalled in 1796 from France, is a slip of a graver character. In refusing Howe's letter addressed to "G. Washington, Esq.," the General is made to say: "This letter is for a planter in Virginia"—a remark unsupported by any authority. Compared with Baker's 'Itinerary,' Miss Johnston's work leaves everything to be desired.

—The second volume of the 'Life and Correspondence of Rufus King' (Putnams) bears out the good impression made by the first. It is rich in new material, and the selection of letters shows care and discrimination. The abundance of matter is seen in the fact that only five years, 1794 to 1799, of King's career are covered in the 600 pages of this volume. The subjects treated are of high interest. The troubles of Jay's treaty and the expulsion of Blount from the Senate for treasonable intentions are of local value. As minister to Great Britain, King was called upon to deal with many questions: prizes taken by French and English; the "extraordinary facility in condemning" such captures exercised by the courts of both countries; problems of international law, such as whether fourpenny nails or osnaburgs were contraband of war; the impressment of seamen; the release of Lafayette and progress of Napoleon; and finally the rise of a black republic in Hayti and the schemes of Miranda, with a possibility of South American republics, and important effects to be exerted on the slave interests of the South and the commercial interests of the North. At all points King displayed tact and knowledge; and his treatment of questions which might lead to war is a model to be studied by the Jingo of to-day. The reader is impressed by the good understanding and cordial relations existing between the American minister and Lord Grenville—relations due in great part, as King frankly admitted, to Jay's conduct of his mission. Nothing could be in stronger contrast with the unfortunate X. Y. Z. affair going on at this very time in France, and which King describes.

—We wish we might have only praise for this work, but the hope of making it even better than it is leads to the noting of some faults. The reading of names shows carelessness. Helmsley is correctly printed on p. 200, but is "Hensley" on p. 249 and "Hemsley" on p. 314. Duverne de Praisle (387) is given Baisle (407), and in the original despatch it was as "Dunen" that he is said to have betrayed the Royalists in France. "Fæderal" is a very unusual form, and is probably intended for fœderal—in common use. "Lefayette" is plainly an error. Instead of repeating letters already found in this series (as Hamilton's), we wish the editor had included more of King's, making the set more distinctly his "Writings." Six of King's letters in the Wolcott and two in the Jay correspondence find no place in this volume. Nor have the Hamilton papers been thoroughly searched, as they contain the letters described by the editor as not to be found. Certain papers have not been collated with the manuscript, leading to misreadings and important omissions. Greene in Lodge is printed "Gunn" in King, and a similar difference makes *secure* in the one "prune" in the other. No less than four of the essays of Camillus in King's manuscript are in the Hamilton collection—a fact needed to make clear the editor's references to those essays. Letters are frequently printed out of their chronological order, and without apparent cause; while notes in brackets inserted in the body of a letter are extremely awkward. In a remarkable letter from Sedgwick (p. 193) it is stated that Beckley, made furious by his rejection as Clerk of the House of Representatives, published the "Reynolds" charges against Hamilton. If this be true, Monroe is in part exonerated from a very serious charge.

—Mr. Lecky, in his 'History of England,' says that "the majority of Irish titles are historically connected with memories not of honor, but of shame." Any reader who desires corroboration of this assertion, any person who wishes to understand the feelings with which the majority of Irishmen look back upon the Union of 1800, cannot do better than purchase Mr. Swift MacNeill's 'Titled Corruption: The Sordid Origin of Some Irish Peerages,' published in this country by the Putnams. Mr. MacNeill, for many years a member of Parliament, traces fifty Irish peerages to their origin. He makes himself responsible for the statement that "they are largely taken up haphazard, and are not cases of exceptional corruption, but are rather types of the character of the ordinary Irish peerage." They are altogether sickening recitals. The present holders of the titles should, of course, be judged by their own lives and characters, not by the doings of their ancestors. But certainly, so far as pride of blood and lineage is concerned, the humblest cottier of honest parentage has, if not more reason to be proud, at least less reason to be ashamed, than they. Mr. MacNeill would have recommended his case more to the general public if he were not so fond of phrases such as "immortality of infamy," "bloodthirsty Lord ——," "crime of the deepest turpitude," "high priest of corruption," and the like, which we find scattered through his pages. An index, at least of titles and proper names, would have made this little book more complete in itself.

—A few months ago Frau de Lagarde printed a short memoir of her husband, the late Professor Paul de Lagarde of Göttingen, for private circulation among his friends and pupils. In response to many requests, she has now published it substantially unchanged ('Paul de Lagarde: Erinnerungen aus seinem Leben.' Göttingen, 1894). The character of the book corresponds to the original intention of the author; it is not a biography, but, as the former title expressed it, "Recollections of his life, brought together for his friends." But the intimate and confidential disclosure of Lagarde's nature which is made in these pages will have hardly less worth for those who knew him only through his writings, especially as more than one aspect of his many-sided character and strong individuality is here brought to light which would hardly be divined from his works. Much of the value of these Recollections lies in the extracts from Lagarde's private correspondence, which have been made with skill and tact. The circle for which the memoir was written explains the fact also that Frau de Lagarde warmly defends her husband from the blame often cast upon him, that he was contentious and unjustly severe in his judgment of others. Se-

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vere he often was, but never intentionally unjust; convinced, as he was, that truth and right were on his side, he could not but contend earnestly for them, but not from love of strife. His faults grew out of the best in his nature. More than in most men, his character was *one* throughout. The truth is, that Lagarde's heart was set on making the world over by far reaching reforms, social, political, educational, religious; but, as of old, the world would not. The many disappointments of his own career rankled in him with the poison of injustice; but the worst was the disappointment of the prophet to whom men give no heed. That he judged all the world harshly is natural enough.

—As is known to our readers, Lagarde's library, which he left to the Göttingen Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften, to establish a publication fund, was bought by the University of the City of New York. It is very rich in works bearing on the Greek versions of the Old Testament, and in certain branches of Semitic study, and will prove very valuable to workers in those lines in this country. At the opening of the library in New York, April 29, 1893, Prof. G. F. Moore of Andover delivered an address on Lagarde's life and writings, which was printed in the *University Quarterly*, July, 1893. In her memoir, Frau de Lagarde has printed the greater part of this address, dealing with Lagarde's work as an Oriental scholar and theologian, as well as with his German writings. The brief sketch gives some impression of the immense range of his interests and labors, and of the quality of his learning. As an appendix to the volume, are printed two characteristic communications of Lagarde, containing a project for the reorganization of the Royal Society of Sciences in Göttingen.

GARDINER'S HISTORY OF THE COMMONWEALTH.—I.

History of the Commonwealth and Protectorate. 1649-1660. By Samuel R. Gardiner, M.A. Vol. I., 1649-1651. Longmans, Green & Co. 1894.

The first volume of Mr. Gardiner's 'History of the Commonwealth and the Protectorate' suggests reflections about two very different men—Mr. Gardiner and Oliver Cromwell.

What is the position which we ought to assign to Mr. Gardiner among the historians of England? What, that is to say, are the limits and the character of his genius? The time appears to have come for answering these questions. Among the living historical writers of England Mr. Gardiner stands now admittedly the first; for the Bishop of Oxford, since he was raised to the episcopate, has ceased to write history. It is an open secret, if secret it can be called, that Mr. Gardiner, from sheer fidelity to the great object of his life—the production of an adequate history of the rule of the Stuarts in England—has declined the Regius professorship of history at Oxford, and has thereby renounced the opportunity of succeeding to Arnold, to Vaughan, to Goldwin Smith, to Stubbs, to Freeman, and to Froude, and of thus filling a post which has been occupied by a longer line of illustrious men than probably any other professional chair in England. His fitness, let it be added, to carry on this tradition of eminence is universally admitted, and his refusal to forsake for a moment the work of his life has been deplored by all Oxford, and by no one, we venture to say, more sincerely than by the eminent teacher who has been appointed to fill the vacant chair. That Mr. Gardiner's devotion to his self-imposed task will have its reward, we may well hope and expect. There is every prospect that he will bequeath to England a complete and an absolutely fair account of the Puritan movement from the accession of James I. to the Restoration. There remains to be told the history of not quite ten years. They are years of immense importance, and Mr. Gardiner will find new opportunities for the exercise of his indefatigable research and of his incomparable candor. He will add much to the knowledge of even the most learned of his readers. His labors will go far to fix the ultimate verdict to be pronounced on Cromwell and his work. One thing, however, Mr. Gardiner will hardly achieve: he will not materially change his own position among historians His future labors, as they certainly will not detract from his fame, can hardly add much to his high reputation. We may now, therefore, form an estimate of his powers and their limits.

The limitations to Mr. Gardiner's historical genius are marked. He is not endowed with any dramatic power. The half-century of which he narrates the events is more full of striking situations than any fifty years in the annals of England, yet it may be questioned whether a single dramatic scene can be found in any one of Mr. Gardiner's volumes. The single exception which may occur to the reader is just one of those exceptions which prove the rule. The twenty lines or so which narrate the tradition of Cromwell's midnight visit to the body of Charles the First are a striking picture of a memorable scene; but in this instance our author merely repeats an anecdote handed down from Pope to Spence, and, to say the plain truth, the sensible reflections which follow this rendering of a weird scene spoil its effect. It would have been well if the story told originally by Lord Southampton had concluded (as with almost any other writer than Mr. Gardiner it would have done) the third volume of the 'History of the Great Civil War.' In the 'History of the Commonwealth and Protectorate' the absence of all taste for effective rendering of striking events amounts to a serious defect. The taking of Drogheda, the battle of Dunbar, the battle of Worcester, the escape of Charles the Second, are all told to the reader—we can hardly say that they are narrated. The facts are placed before us, but it takes some reflection to understand what they mean, or to realize what was the condition of England when distracted by a violent religious and political revolution. No doubt the tendency of many historians is to be too dramatic. They forget that, even in revolutionary eras, the ordinary life of ordinary men preserves for the most part the even tenor of its way. Still, it is quite possible to fail in reproducing the actual excitement of an age filled with passion. Whoever reads Mr. Gardiner's account of Cromwell's Irish campaigns will undoubtedly obtain a fairer statement of the facts than from any other English writer, but the facts themselves are hardly intelligible unless you allow for the atmosphere of rage and sentiment which gave them their color. No one will ever understand great crises in human affairs who does not allow for the force of human passions; and violence, prejudice, injustice, and all the long list of vices begotten of excitement and anger, seem to be all but incomprehensible to our historian.

Combined with this deficiency in the appreciation of violent feeling, there is patent, at any rate in Mr. Gardiner's later writings, a minor fault which mars the effect of his narrative, and even, it may be suspected, occasionally vitiates his judgment. He looks at the events which he is studying rather in piecemeal than as a whole. There is a real danger of his becoming rather a chronicler than an historian. His 'History of the Great Civil War,' as also the first volume of his 'History of the Commonwealth,' forms a perfect *Annual Register* of the years with which his volumes deal; but a chronicle of events is not, and never can be, the same thing as a history. The object of an historian is not only to tell his readers what happened in a given period, but also to show how, and if possible why, events took the course they did. He ought, at any rate, to put transactions before us in their due proportion, and to show us what were the salient features of a remarkable era. Mr. Gardiner here fails short of his duty, and fails to exercise a power of clear and orderly narrative which he undoubtedly possesses.

On this matter it is possible to speak with confidence. Mr. Gardiner's 'History of the Thirty Years' War' constitutes a triumph of literary skill. We venture with some assurance to assert that there is no historical manual in the English language which contains a more interesting, a more succinct, and a more lucid narrative of a very complicated series of transactions; whoever masters Mr. Gardiner's pages has before him a complete plan, though, no doubt, only in outline, of the struggle which finally fixed the political relations of Protestantism and Catholicism. The extraordinary thing is, that the very points in which Mr. Gardiner excels in his short treatise on the Thirty Years' War, are the points in which he comparatively fails in his large history of the great Puritan movement. Throughout the whole of the little manual, consisting altogether of not more than 222 pages, intelligent readers must be constantly impressed with our author's absolute command of his subject. He surveys the Thirty Years' War as a whole; he never loses sight of its general character; he marks with unerring skill the crises in the contest. The causes of the events and their ultimate issues are always before his mind. No critic, however captious, could ever question, as regards the Thirty Years' War, either Mr. Gardiner's mastery of his topic or his genius for clear and orderly narrative; but as we read the pages of Mr. Gardiner's later volumes we feel as if he almost declined of set purpose to take a general view of his topic. Each event is narrated in its chronological order, but the bearing of one event upon another, the relative importance of different transactions, the causes and the results of the Puritan Revolution, though no doubt not absent from our teacher's mind, are certainly not forced by him upon the attention of students. He writes, indeed, almost like a man who does not know the end of the course of events which he is laboriously tracing out. Year by year he explores the transactions which chronologically come before him, but he writes of 1649 as if he still hardly knew what was going to happen in 1651, and in November, 1651, at which date Mr. Gardiner's last volume closes, our guide does not seem to have before his mind the approaching fall of the Commonwealth or the rise of the Protectorate.

No doubt, this defect is one which, like every deficiency of Mr. Gardiner's, borders upon a virtue. It is certainly not desirable that the mind of an historical inquirer should be diverted from intense attention to the period or even the year with which he is actually concerned by thoughts about the changes which the succeeding year will produce; and

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there is no doubt that Mr. Gardiner's attitude as an historian is much influenced by the fact that he is as truly an inquirer as a narrator, and is devoting his great powers rather to research than to narrative. Investigation is, after all, a different thing from narration. The only thing which is the subject for legitimate regret is that a possibly too exclusive devotion to the discovery of what is unknown threatens to prevent Mr. Gardiner from taking his proper place among the masters in the art of historical narrative.

As we have said, however, there is not a fault in Mr. Gardiner's position as an historian which is not closely allied to some high merit. His determination to guide his readers step by step through each year of the Puritan Revolution is, we doubt not, due in great part to the perfectly sound conviction that you never can judge men fairly, especially in times of revolution, unless you keep steadily before your mind the precise date and circumstances of their actions. Words or acts, say of Cromwell's, bear a totally different complexion according to the date when they were uttered or took place. It is hardly an exaggeration to say that the Cromwell of 1647 or 1648 must be treated in some respects as a different man from the Cromwell of 1650 or 1651. In any case, it is certain, though this certainty is by ordinary writers always overlooked, that in 1648 he could no more foretell the events or the sentiment of 1651 than any one of us can in 1895 predict what will be the state of parties or of public opinion, say in England, in 1898. The narrow limits of human knowledge are sufficient of themselves to convict of falsehood half the alleged schemes of far-sighted policy or of elaborate intrigue which are laid to the credit or to the discredit of the great leaders of men, such as Cæsar, Cromwell, or Napoleon. The determination to stick close to facts, and to look at them in their undoubted chronological sequence, is not the cause, but certainly is the support, of Mr. Gardiner's great and peculiar merit—his unrivalled sense of historical justice.

One effect of Mr. Gardiner's judicial fairness is curious. No writer had ever less desire to convert men to his opinions. Mr. Gardiner is far too conscientious an historian to be infected with the vice of either partisanship or didacticism, yet no author has ever, we suspect, made a greater number of conversions. A fair-minded reader rises from the study of Mr. Gardiner's books not so much with changed opinions, but, what is rather a different thing, with changed views. He learns, for instance—and learns in a way which it is impossible to forget—that the attitude of different parties throughout the Civil War, no less than throughout the period which led to it, was perfectly natural. The attitude of James and Charles, of Laud and of Strafford, was as much the natural outcome of their training and position as the attitude of Pym or Hampden or of Fairfax or Cromwell. It is perfectly plain that neither all the virtues nor all the vices were to be found exclusively among Cavaliers or among Puritans. What is even more noteworthy, because it is constantly forgotten, is that during the Puritan Revolution the choice of sides was a matter of great difficulty which might well perplex the wisest and the fairest of men. A revolution of some kind was inevitable. The defect of the Stuarts was that they understood neither the characters of men nor the course of events; they might have guided a revolution which they tried without any great skill to withstand, but what was the exact change required by the time is a matter which even now is open to discussion, and certainly could hardly be decided by any statesman of the seventeenth century. In a vague way we can see that freedom was the cure for the political, and toleration the one remedy for the religious, evils of the age. But the one thing certain, at any rate from the outbreak of the Civil War, was that every change was full of possible danger. The triumph of Charles meant despotism; the triumph of the Presbyterians meant the tyranny of an ecclesiastical party with which the majority of Englishmen had no sympathy. The success of a few ardent Republicans very possibly involved at once despotism and anarchy. The rule of Cromwell led inevitably, though much against his will, to the supremacy of the army.

All the inherent difficulties of the situation are forced by Mr. Gardiner upon the attention of students, and the more these difficulties become apparent, the more tolerant students must become towards the leaders by whom an unprecedented crisis had to be faced. We learn by this means to sympathize not only with the greatest men of the time, but also with the men who played a considerable, though secondary, part on the stage of history. To take as two examples of this Hugh Peters and Fairfax. We soon become convinced by Mr. Gardiner that the Puritan preacher was a very different sort of man from the sour fanatic with which, absurdly enough, he has been identified, and Fairfax appears in his true colors as, next to Cromwell, the greatest of Puritan soldiers. He is just one of those men whose virtues are passed over by zealots or advocates, but are recognized, in calm language the effect of which is the greater for its calmness, in the judicial pages of Mr. Gardiner's history. The truth is, that he is at his best when dealing with men who, though noteworthy, are not quite the leading spirits of the time. Whether he can draw a satisfactory portrait of such a leader as Cromwell is perhaps open to doubt. The time for summing up the character of the Protector has not yet arrived. Mr. Gardiner has already done much, however, to facilitate a fair estimate of the Puritan hero. In our next article we shall attempt to point out the conclusions which Mr. Gardiner's History suggests with regard to Cromwell.

JOHN ADDINGTON SYMONDS.

John Addington Symonds: A Biography. By Horatio F. Brown. With portraits and other illustrations. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895.

It is not easy to predict under what aspect the subject of this biography will especially interest future generations. To us, at the close of this century so curious of the study of character and so engrossed in theories of education, the story of this outwardly uneventful life is extremely interesting as a subject for psychological study, and as the most instructive example of a sort of culture which has no exact parallel in past ages.

Considered from without, the life of John Addington Symonds has nothing to distinguish it from many another devoted to literary pursuits. He was well—or at any rate much—educated; he was always in easy circumstances; he wrote many successful books under great but not unparalleled disadvantages due to ill health; he did what good his hand found to do; and he is at rest. But as soon as we lift the curtain of this outer life, we look upon a world agitated by volcanic storms of the most terrific character. It is as though one should break through the cold crust of the globe and peer into the molten, seething core of it. Symonds was the son of an eminent physician of Bristol, who lived on a footing of equality with the great scientists and scholars of his time. From him he inherited an acute and ever active intellect, and from his early-lost mother a distinctly neurotic temperament; a combination of the most dangerous sort. The working of his mind was preternaturally active and incessant, so that, from his very childhood, it was constantly outrunning his nerve-force, as if he were using more of the "gray matter" of the brain than nature could normally supply. Even while he was a mere schoolboy, that overwrought brain more than once stopped short in the midst of its work, like an overtaxed locomotive compelled to stand still and "make steam" for a further pull. For even "Tired Nature's sweet restorer, balmy sleep," was neither sweet, nor restorative, nor balmy to this precocious boy. Nightly terrors, somnambulism, or insomnia too often filled the hours when Nature should have been doing her work of restoration.

All this made him singular and morbidly sensitive; and these conditions, again, raised a barrier between him and most of the boys with whom he lived, which, of course, only made matters worse. These evils were fostered by the wealth of his family, by the admiration of his sisters for an only brother, and by the fact that his father, although disposed to do what he could for the motherless boy, was precluded by his own crowded life from giving him that constant personal attention which his mental even more than his physical condition required. At the age of nineteen we find him at Oxford in a circle of brilliant men, among whom the late Prof. Jowett was the most prominent figure, forcing his restless brain to keep pace with vigorous minds to which the severest intellectual gymnastics had long ceased to be a dangerous effort, like a young wrestler who brings his adolescent muscles into competition with the iron thews of the mature athlete. At twenty he won the Newdigate prize for English poetry; and he was graduated soon after in course with very high, though not the highest, honors. As might have been expected, the young man paid dearly for the killing pace which he had been keeping up. He had just won a fellowship at Magdalen, after failing to secure one at Queen's College, when he totally broke down and was sent for the third time to recruit his health by foreign travel.

Soon after this crisis, Symonds was married to his truly incomparable wife, to whom every reader who can read between the lines of this too discreet biography will easily discover that he owed, directly and indirectly, all the real happiness that ever came to him. From the psychological point of view this event marks the close of what in a certain sense we might call the unconscious period in Symonds's life. Although painfully addicted from his earliest days to introspection, he seems not to have discovered until now what he himself calls the "sophistication of his existence." His sufferings at this time are painful to read of. Religious doubts, the natural fruit of his education, wrung his very soul. Doubts but little less harrowing hung round all the ideals of his young ambition. He was ill, constantly weary, oppressed by a sense of utter failure, and yet not content to "sprawl," as he terms it, under the burden of his calamities, but pursued by a desire to distinguish himself in literature, and, at the same time, more and more conscious of those failings with which

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his critics have taxed him not more severely than he taxed himself. In these circumstances Walt Whitman, the very type of whatever was most opposite to his Oxford training, seems to have helped him; and if, at a later time, he showed an undue appreciation of that remarkable author, the fact must be ascribed to his gratitude for this service. To Whitman, and, no doubt, to the wise counsels of his young wife, he owed the first distinct revelation that "nature is more than art, life more than culture," and therefore that duty well done—"drudgery" he still calls it—is the great panacea for all mental troubles to the sons of Eve.

We cannot further pursue a psychological inquiry which would carry us far beyond our limits. We only add that in proportion as definite endeavor made Symonds more the slave of duty, and in proportion as his nature was purified from the common taint of selfishness by his family relations and by the interest which he took in the people of Davos, where his weak lungs had fixed him, he became happier and less rebellious against his limitations. Let us not forget what they were. In the poorest health, and condemned by the best English doctors to an early death, he found his chief comfort in literary work; and while his tastes led him to a field of labor where accuracy is of prime importance, he, recognizing that importance in the fullest degree, was painfully aware of his inaccuracy, which was probably inevitable, and of which he was disposed to exaggerate the extent. He never forgot that he had been "plucked" at "smalls" because he could not accurately conjugate two simple Greek verbs. While he felt so keenly on this subject, his life as an invalid exiled for years from libraries and from contact with living scholars cut him off from all means of correcting this fundamental fault. Many of his works were written at a distance from all books of reference, often upon some hotel table far from that circumambient atmosphere of the study which does so much for the writer, and especially for one so open to external impressions as Symonds was. Yet, in spite of these and many more difficulties which most persons would regard as a sufficient excuse for absolute idleness, Symonds worked on, to the day of his death, with a patience, a courage, an enthusiasm such as might shame the most advantageously situated scholar.

When we turn from Symonds's inner life to consider that overwrought Oxford culture which was his bane, it may be objected that we have no right to judge of it from the effects on a nature so peculiarly sensitive. We answer that it is precisely in a nature where that particular culture worked unrestrained that we can hope to see its legitimate consequences. Symonds said it all when he spoke of his sophisticated existence. The very essence of this sort of culture, happily not the only one pursued in England, nor even at Oxford, is the sophistication of existence through the overstimulation of the æsthetic sense. Hyperæsthesia is the medical name for a morbidly active physical sensibility. There is no better word to express the morbid activity of the moral æsthetic sense superinduced by such overtraining. The contemplation of the beautiful in art is one of the noblest occupations of the mind; but the hair-splitting, minute, ceaseless analysis of Beauty, the concentration of all the mental powers on the vivisection of the butterfly Taste, the perpetual elevation of æsthetics above every other object of thought, can only produce monstrosities. "I am nothing if not cultivated," said Symonds of himself. Of others it might be said that they are nothing *except* cultivated. Whether it be the mannikin produced at Oxford or his analogue as we see him reared in the "brainy" circles of Boston, this tamer Frankenstein monster made of dead fragments from every literary churchyard is no product of nature. One would like to prick the artificial thing in order to discover whether it is stuffed with sawdust or with bran. By such busy spiders of "culture" all beauty, natural and artistic, is covered with cobwebs many deep. But if the great things of genius do not speak to our souls in their own naked beauty, how shall we ever discern them through all their dusty cobwebberies?

It was here that Whitman helped Symonds by the very fact of his robust brutality; and it is curious to note that Emerson, when, after some hesitation, he sent the 'Leaves of Grass' to Carlyle, appears to have found in it the very qualities which made it serviceable to Symonds. He spoke of the book as "a nondescript monster, which yet had terrible eyes and buffalo strength." It was those eyes and that buffalo strength that Symonds wanted. His was the weary, pampered stomach so well described by Horace as craving strong, coarse food—

"perna magis ac magis hilis
Flagitat immorsus reflci, quin omnia malit
Quæcumque immundis fervent allata popinis."

It is not surprising that Symonds should have looked upon Whitman as one who had rendered him the greatest service, the like of which no physician less coarse or more reticent could have rendered to such a patient. And we need seek no different explanation of the infinite good that came to Symonds from prolonged attrition with the simple folk of the Graubunden. Without the (to him) salutary shock of Whitman's brutalities, the milder vulgarities of their rather sordid peasant life might perhaps have disgusted without healing him. After he had once learned to disbelieve in Brummagem idols and papier-maché arks of the covenant he was ready for contact with the simplicities of unsophisticated existence. To come from the suffocating atmosphere of dilettantism into free contact with real lives was like passing from the close air of a ball-room into the pure coldness of a winter night. Perhaps he overdid the cure. It is remarkable, at least, how, after some years of the Davos life, Symonds turns away from the best products of the Oxford soil, and becomes intolerant even of Pater's "precious sentences."

The author of this biography has done his work well. He has mostly allowed Symonds to describe his inner life in his own words, only here and there interposing to correct, by the aid of some contemporaneous document, the mistakes of the writer's retrospection after many years and in altered circumstances. Nothing could exceed Mr. Brown's delicacy and discretion in dealing with those sacred things which some romantic readers will miss from this book. Nothing could equal the unfeigned humility of his consistent self-effacement, which ends by appearing excessive. And yet the work is perhaps somewhat too long. There is too much of certain kinds of illustration. One episode, the ten or more pages devoted to Jenny Lind, though interesting, is mere surplusage. The same impression might have been produced by a book considerably shorter than the two elegant and sumptuous volumes which the Scribners have given us. But it will not seem too long to the large circle of Symonds's enthusiastic admirers. For, with some enemies and some rather severe critics, Symonds had and deserved to have many firm and devoted friends. We cannot better close these remarks than with the last and, for once, true words of his epitaph written by one of them, his life-long friend Prof. Jowett; nor are there many that we should prefer to have engraved on our own sepulchre; "Ave carissime! Nemo te magis in corde amicos fovebat, nec in simplices et indoctos benevolentior erat."

RECENT LAW-BOOKS.

THE second edition of Prof. Wambaugh's 'Study of Cases' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) is really a new book. The aim of the volume is to teach students "the methods by which lawyers detect *dicta* and determine the pertinence and weight of reported cases"—in other words, the use of the tools of the trade. The volume accordingly consists of a mass of elementary lore about cases, most of which is not to be found elsewhere, followed by a number of cases, without head-notes, for study. Besides this, there is a good deal of information on subjects which those who use law-books every day ought to have at their fingers' ends, or at any rate within easy reach, such as the proper method of abbreviating citations, and the chronology of the English reigns and terms of court. English and American law is case law, and if any proof of it were needed, it is that all the work of codification—*i. e.*, legislation with a view to reducing the volume of necessary litigation—during the past forty years, has resulted only in increasing the volume of cases. Why it should be so—why, at the very birth of the common law, we should find that atmosphere of veneration for precedent of which no other existing system shows much trace; why it should have perpetuated itself through all the later centuries of advancing enlightenment and reform; why to-day, in the teeth of the judicial legislation of six centuries, it should still be the fundamental assumption of the common law that the law itself has never changed, so that the best judges always resent the imputation of assuming to innovate—these are hard questions, to which no answer is to be found in Mr. Wambaugh's book, nor, so far as we know, in any other. But of the fact there is no doubt.

The common-law view of the relation of cases to the law has never been better stated than by Blackstone:

"The judgment, though pronounced or awarded by the judges, is not their determination on sentence, but the determination and sentence of *the law*. It is the conclusion that naturally and regularly follows from the premises of law and fact, which stands thus: Against him who hath rode over my corn, I may recover damages by law; but A. hath rode over my corn; therefore I may recover damages against A. If the major proposition be denied, this is a demurrer in law; if the minor, it is then an issue of fact; but if both be confessed (or determined) to be right, the conclusion or judgment of the court cannot but follow, which judgment or conclusion depends not, therefore, on the arbitrary caprice of the judge, but on the settled and invariable principles of justice."

This is the beginning of wisdom. But although the law always remains the same, the major premises of the syllogism which make it up may be altered, and, strange to say, even reversed, so that a great English judge has called the theory so beautifully described by Blackstone a "legal fiction." The whole matter will be found fully discussed in Mr. Wambaugh's chapter on the "Growth of Legal Doctrine." Whatever view we may take of it, one thing is certain, that it is the *crux* of English and American law. So long as it re-

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mains such, so long will the study of cases retain its ancient and capital importance.

The law tends every day, as Sheridan said of Gibbon, to become, if not more luminous, certainly more voluminous. Where lawyers used to have digests and treatises, they now have not only these, swollen to appalling dimensions, but a cyclopædia as well; and therefore it will surprise no one to find published as a 'Handbook of the Law of Contracts' (St. Paul: West Publishing Co.), in the "Hornbook Series," a volume citing ten thousand cases and containing over nine hundred 8vo pages. And let no one suppose it to be anything but what it holds itself out to be. A Digest of the law of contracts would probably contain a hundred thousand cases, and for convenient use would have to be published in ten volumes. In the Brobdingnagian domain of modern legal literature, Mr. Clark's treatise may fairly be called a handbook, and, so far as we have been able to examine it, a very good one. It is founded on Anson and Leake, and is one of a series of elementary treatises on all the subjects of the law, the principal features of which are to be (1) a succinct statement of leading principles in heavy type; (2) a more extended commentary, bringing out the principles; (3) notes and authorities; (4) problems and hypothetical cases to test the student's knowledge. In the present book we have, as a result, a sort of codification of the law of contracts, consisting of some three hundred sections, with a gloss amply fortified by citations. It differs from such a book as Stephen's well-known 'Digest of Evidence' from the fact that the gloss is not in the form of illustrative cases, but resembles the comment of an ordinary text-book.

For the same series Mr. Norman Fetter has written a book on Equity, and Mr. Henry Campbell Black on Constitutional Law. Mr. Fetter has managed to sum up the whole of equity in 204 rules and 335 pages, notwithstanding that some four thousand cases are cited. Mr. Black has managed to do the same thing for American constitutional law in 201 rules and 550 pages, and has cited only 2,800 cases. With Mr. Black's manner of framing rules we must confess we are not wholly satisfied. For example, rule 129, relating to the "taking" of property under eminent domain, is as follows:

"In order to constitute a 'taking' of property under the power of eminent domain it is not necessary that the property should be destroyed, or that the owner should be entirely deprived or disseised of the estate. It is sufficient to entitle him to claim compensation if the work or improvement for which this power is exercised deprives him of the ordinary, necessary, and beneficial use of the property, or if its value, for such uses and purposes, is directly and necessarily diminished by the work in question. *But he is not entitled to claim damages in respect of any merely incidental, indirect, or consequential injuries which his property may sustain by reason of the work or construction, where the same is justified by a lawful exercise of the powers of government, and there is no actual appropriation of any property or right to which he has a legal claim.*"

One would think from this and the gloss which follows that there was some simple and easily stated rule, uniform throughout the United States, on the subject. But the fact is, that the old rule was that property must be "taken" in the physical sense, and this produced so much injustice that in a great number of American constitutions it is now expressly provided that the land-owner may recover for damage without taking through the exercise of the power of eminent domain. In such States the law is the exact reverse of what it is here stated to be in the last clause of the rule. Mr. Black's formula may do very well as a statement of the result of the Elevated Railroad decisions in this State, which wholly changed the law here by judicial legislation, and assimilated it to that of those States which have amended their constitutions. The subject is one which needs a short historical statement in order to enable the student to understand what it means.

Prof. John Westlake's 'Chapters on the Principles of International Law' (Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan) is, as he says, not a treatise on international law, but "an attempt to stimulate and assist reflection on its principles." It contains essays on the relation of international law to law in general; on the equality and independence of states; on territorial sovereignty; on war, and on other subjects. We have not space to criticise them in detail, but may call the attention of readers to the very clear statement by the author of the claims of international law to be regarded as real law, and not, as Austin insisted, a branch of morality. Austin, in his anxiety to separate positive law established over subjects by a sovereign from everything else, seems to have overlooked the fact that morality, if we use language in its ordinary sense, deals with the relations of individuals with one another, while international law is a body of rules affecting the dealings of sovereign states with one another—rules which are (and this is the main point) commonly regarded as enforceable, and actually from time to time enforced, by *states*.

'Commentaries on the Law of Persons and Personal Property, being an Introduction to the Study of Contracts,' by the late Prof. Theodore W. Dwight, edited by Edward F. Dwight (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), comprises the topics included in the author's lectures at the Columbia Law School, "immediately preceding the course on contracts." It is designed principally for the use of students, but it is so condensed that we suspect that in delivery the text must have been much amplified. Prof. Dwight had indeed a far greater faculty for oral than for written exposition, and those who remember his energetic manner, and capacity for creating interest in a dry subject, will miss something in looking over these pages. The book is marked by conciseness and accuracy, and the editor has added such late decisions and statutes as the lapse of time since its completion has made necessary.

The second part of Prof. James B. Thayer's 'Cases on Constitutional Law' (Cambridge: Charles W. Sever) completes that important work (pp. 2,434), which is the most comprehensive and at the same time scientifically arranged collection on the subject in existence. This volume contains five chapters on the important topics of retroactive laws, the regulation of commerce, the impairment of contracts, money, and military law. The work is intended to be divided into two volumes. Careful directions to the binder will enable the possessor of the parts as published to have them thus suitably bound, and to avail himself of the excellent index, which almost atones for the omission of head-notes, exacted of the author by the demands of the Law School. We say author advisedly, for the skilful linking together of the developed steps of each topic, and the copious annotation from all sources, give this book the character of an original work. Although primarily intended for law students, members of the bar will find the book a great repository of information. We only wish that a copy of it could form a part of every editorial library in America, and that a careful study of the chapters entitled "Taxation," "The Regulation of Commerce," and "War" might be obligatory upon the economic or military writers for every newspaper.

Roman Life in Latin Prose and Verse. Selected and edited by Profs. H. T. Peck and R. Arrowsmith. American Book Co. 1894.

To the minds of many teachers of the classics there is a new danger threatening their particular branch of learning. There was a time when boys were made to read selections from the best ancient works in a thorough manner, as remarkable pieces of literary perfection deserving of close study not only for the style and method of their composition, but also for their contents and the beauties of their expression. This old-fashioned study, covering a number of authors, has been to a great extent abandoned in the endeavor to teach boys to read at sight in both Latin and Greek. In order to accomplish this highly desirable end, it is necessary to read large amounts of these languages, and the reading, it is thought, must be done in authors whose style and contents are comparatively simple. As a matter of fact, by far the most of the time given to classics at present in our schools is devoted to Xenophon's 'Anabasis' and 'Hellenica' and to Cæsar's 'Commentaries,' and many boys on coming to college can read almost anything that is written in the style of these books. But what follows? There are practically no books surviving and worth our reading whose fields of thought and whose subject-matter are so limited as we find the thoughts and matter in the above-mentioned works. Further, it is not very surprising that so few young men are inspired by the contents of these books to keep up the study of the classics beyond their schoolboy days; that they are repelled from the narrow and jejune fields which alone are opened to them in such writings. The fact is that this new system, carried to its present excess, leaves out altogether the element of the imagination, which is so strong in young boys, and which ought to be fostered and not starved out. It needs nourishment on *thoughts*, and it is extremely doubtful (to put it mildly) whether there are in the 'Anabasis' or the 'Commentaries' many thoughts worth remembering as such. But we shall be told that the boy can't understand the great thoughts of the greater classical writers. *Nugaris!* Who wants him to? As if anybody, least of all the learned, felt sure about the exact shade of meaning! The great thing to be aimed at is the enlargement of the mind and the extending of the point of view, whether in the study of the classics or of anything else. The power of reading at sight is all very well—invaluable, if you like, and a thing that must be had—but with it one needs something else. What a pity that a boy should get the idea that the Greeks and Romans were always fighting, or talking in indirect discourse, or staying three days in deserted villages! This sort of thing was avoided by the old and broader way of teaching. One of the ways of avoiding it was by the use of books of selections from a variety of authors and on a variety of topics, by such a book, for instance, as Felton's 'Greek Reader.' And it may be avoided in Latin teaching now by the use of a book like 'Roman Life in Latin Prose and Verse.'

This book, to be sure, is not intended for mere beginners in Latin, but how easy it would be to make a similar book for such; how many of them there used to be in the days "when

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nobody had any Views." But this one might well be used to great advantage after a couple of years of thorough study of the rudiments. It need not, of course, be the only text-book; but what an opener of the mind it would be to a boy could he use it, say twice a week, alternating with the harmless necessary Cæsar! It begins with half-a-dozen pages of popular songs, charms, and nursery rhymes; then come some epitaphs, including the famous one of Scipio (not printed in cold type, but engraved, tomb and all, so that you can read it, as it were, from the stone itself); then selections from Ennius, Plautus, old man Cato's ideas on the treatment of slaves, Lucretius, Catullus (but in the next edition we want the poor little sparrow hopping all by himself down the darkling road by which no traveller, sparrow or man, ever returns); then there is Cæsar, but not with his armor on, we may be sure, for Profs. Peck and Arrowsmith are men of peace; then three dozen saws from Syrus, a letter from Cicero and some of his good talk about literature and about old age; then Virgil, Mæcenas, then, of course, Horace, a dozen pages of famous passages and his adventure with that bore—a story which nobody can meet for the hundredth time without stopping to read it through; then Ovid, Livy, Petronius's dinner party, Quintilian, Martial, Juvenal, Uncle Pliny on hydrophobia and doctors, and his nephew's letter about the stout old fellow's death during the eruption—also the story of the haunted house and the letter to Trajan about the Christians; next some extremely timely words from Gaius, the great professor of law, on the business capacity of women; next *graffiti*, including the little ass at the mill and the labyrinthus; then Hadrian to his soul, extracts from Tacitus, Suetonius, and Gellius, and in full the last will of the little pig. Finally come three Christian hymns, including part of the greatest of all, the 'Dies iræ.'

The great merit of a work like this is that, instead of repelling, it is sure to make the study of Latin more attractive to all young students, while stimulating the more ambitious among them to a desire to read more widely. Hearty thanks are due to the editors for the excellence of their selection of passages. These are drawn from the best sources and printed from the best texts. The short notes on the passages and the brief biographies of the writers are useful and correct. There are about fifty illustrations in the book, taken from ancient and modern works. Of these, the one called a "Roman Bride" must represent, we think, a Greek lady, and the picture of the so-called temple of Vesta were better omitted, not being Vesta's at all, and having nothing to do with the scene in Horace's satire. Something should have been said in the notes about metres, and the more difficult verses should be marked with the ictus. But these points are easily corrected in another edition, to which it is to be hoped that the book soon may come.

Comte, Mill, and Spencer: An Outline of Philosophy. By John Watson, LL.D. Macmillan & Co. 1895. Pp. 302.

THIS is a sketch of philosophy by a well-known idealist of the school of Green and Caird, based upon a criticism of the most famous of the experientialists of our century. What is the standing to-day, among those who devote themselves to philosophy, of Comte, Mill, and Spencer? To judge the pertinence and strength of this book, we must recall to mind what their reputation is, not among men who read half-a-dozen works of philosophy and then stop, but among those who are qualified to judge of them. Spencer's books are supposed to contain an immense number of acute and valuable ideas, belonging to the marches between positive science and a more comprehensive theory; but as for his philosophy as stated by himself in sixteen propositions, it is valued by very few, if by any, although there are two or three of its statements which are pretty widely accepted. Spencer's 'First Principles,' though it contains one idea, at least, which has been generally taken up, is as a whole the work of a man wholly ignorant of modern philosophy, and therefore entirely incompetent to address modern students. Spencer, as a philosopher, is much more respected by those who write against him than he is by the bulk of students, although their general attitude of thought is nearer to his. Mill's 'Logic,' a work going on to two generations of age—generations the most active in the direction of logic mother earth has looked upon—was written by a man without any reading in philosophy outside the nominalist school. It was animated by the purpose of overthrowing the ideas of Whewell, which are the ideas that, before Whewell and since, have prevailed among those physicists who have endeavored to take a philosophical view of the history of physics, and who have had no extreme bias towards any particular school of philosophy. Moreover, it is now generally recognized that Mill's exposition suffered from his struggles to throw off the narrow bonds of the school in which he had lived. The result was to make him wavering and inconsistent to a degree that the reader would not at first deem possible. Jevons had begun to show this, in a series of papers now reckoned important by scholars, when he was cut off, to the world's loss. Comte, in the judgment of modern students, was a man whose spool of intellectual piano-forte wire was vastly greater. Of Mill there is nothing to ask except whether his doctrine is correct or not; but Comte certainly made mighty contributions to the world's stock of ideas, over and above what he got from St. Simon, whether they squarely drive the truth into the hard skull of Humanity or not.

Such, as well as we can make it out, is (not *our* opinion, but) the centre of gravity of the judgments of real students to-day. As compared with its place thirty years ago, it has moved much away from Mill, much toward Comte. But not in a direct line. No doubt, opinion has swerved toward realism (in the scholastic sense). For example, thirty years ago thinkers were generally very averse to innate ideas. But Spencer (July, 1865) used the phrase "hereditary ideas," and men began to think it was a question of evidence. Experiments were made; and the upshot is there is not a psychologist to-day who does not hold the doctrine of innate ideas, whether he *calls* them so or not, substantially as it was held by Descartes and Leibnitz. Now the doctrine of innate ideas is in general harmony with realism as opposed to nominalism. Pure mathematics, too, burst out into extraordinary activity; and pure mathematics is a natural friend of idealism. Then an exacter analysis of the logical question showed that realism was the doctrine of modern science. The advanced school of Formal Logic found in their algebra potent reasons for a conception of logic having a general similarity with that of Hegel's objective logic. The idea of evolution naturally inclined men the same way. Accordingly, when Mr. Watson proposes to found an idealistic philosophy on the study of the three great empiricists of whom our time talks, he is taking advantage of a powerful current of thought.

He begins with mathematical reasoning and Mill's views about it. During the last two generations the fundamental mathematical conceptions have been the object of most exact and profound study by the subtlest and exactest mathematicians who ever illuminated the world; and those studies have resulted in a substantial settlement of opinion among mathematicians themselves concerning most of the questions involved. After this history, it is interesting to find that Mill's main contentions are now regarded by mathematicians as attempts to formulate what is definitively acknowledged to be true. It is not surprising that Prof. Watson should be able to show very clearly that Mill is in error; and up to a certain point he goes on with great success. But it soon becomes apparent that he knows nothing of modern mathematics, and has not sufficiently (if at all) studied the analyses by modern mathematicians of their own thought. He is not aware how much those works do toward reconciling idealistic proclivities with the spirit of positive science. After the usual style of Kantians, he allows the question to be confused by not separating geometry as a branch of physics from geometry as a branch of pure mathematics. He calls no attention to the remarkable circumstance that, after mathematicians have deliberately severed their moorings to the real world—as in the Theory of Functions, for example, which is all about $\sqrt{-1}$—instead of their bark being tossed upon a wild sea of arbitrary hypotheses, as one might expect, they reach a certain destination, different investigators upon widely different lines being led to the same conceptions and to concordant results, quite as surely as different chemists experimenting upon the same substance. Such facts afford comfort to idealists; and it will generally be found that modern pure mathematicians are as idealistic about ideal geometry as they are decidedly empiricist about physical geometry.

Nor does Prof. Watson expose, as he should, the falsity of the common idea that mathematics advances by means of demonstrations. No doubt demonstrations are more important in mathematics than in most sciences; but, for all that, mathematics advances, just as the physical sciences do, by observation and generalization. Its observations are, it is true, only observations of the mind's own constructions, but they often have that *startling* quality which indicates that they *are* observations. The generalizations are so complex in construction as not at once to be recognized as generalizations. When mathematics is written in the style of Euclid, both the observations and the generalizations are hidden in the crush of demonstrations from student and writer alike. But modern mathematicians recognize the operations of attentive observation and generalization as their chief engines, and give them due prominence. This at once favors the moderately positivist conviction that science is the fruit of observation and generalization, and at the same time the idealistic belief that the world of ideas is a real world, that can be observed and reasoned about, and not a world of whimsies. It is really high time that those who write about the philosophy of mathematics should have a familiar acquaintance with modern mathematics, and should have attended to the reflections of modern mathematicians concerning their own science.

Prof. Watson's view of causation will seem to Anglo-Saxon minds a little wanting in

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meaning. He denies that there is anything "occult" about causation, but in the same breath attributes it to an *identity* which he does not make clear. Thus, two bodies at a given distance have a given gravitational acceleration towards one another. If we ask why, and are told there is an occult unity in nature producing the uniformity, we can understand that, especially if the occultness is only relative. But when we are told that it is because of an identity not occult, we cannot say that that is perspicuous.

In three successive chapters on Biology, its relations to Philosophy, and the Philosophy of Mind, the question of whether everything is to be levelled down to matter or levelled up to mind is discussed with great clearness and no little force. The idealistic position is argued against the school of Spencer and Huxley in a manner deserving attention. The stronghold of idealism to-day lies in reflections upon the question of how consciousness came into the world. Students of to-day form their opinions on a basis of observed fact. Their quarrel with the old "experientialists" is that their own doctrines were not so formed, but were the mere expression of their intellectual inclinations. If observed facts lead to belief in ghosts, in ghosts they will believe. If they lead to the belief in the active reality of ideas, in that they will believe. But in accepting idealism, the older generation of idealists must not flatter themselves that scientific men—and modern philosophers have upon their hands the stains of the laboratory—are going to embrace the notions, the sentiments, and the mode of being which, heretofore accidentally associated with idealism, have their home in the theological seminary.

Origines Françaises de l'Architecture Gothique en Italie. Par C. Enlart. Paris: Thorin & Fils. 1894.

Under the above title M. Enlart, of the École des Chartes of Paris and the French School of Athens and of Rome, has given the first full and accurate description of a highly interesting and important group of mediæval buildings in Italy that have hitherto been, for the most part, unknown to modern students of architecture. These buildings exist in places generally unfrequented by travellers. They are more or less apart from ordinary routes, and in some cases in situations so malarious as to render them unsafe for more than the briefest sojourn. The buildings are not the works of native designers; they are the churches of the Cistercian monks, who, during the twelfth century, established themselves in numerous bodies throughout Italy, as they did in other countries of Europe, carrying with them the architectural principles and habits that had been acquired in their original home.

The architecture of the early twelfth century in Burgundy, where the Cistercian order arose, was Romanesque of two main types. The first type, of which the great church of Cluny was the most conspicuous example, was characterized by the use of the barrel vault over the nave; while the second adopted the oblong groin vault, as in the nave of Vézelay. Before the middle of the twelfth century this last type was modified into a semblance of Gothic by the introduction of the pointed arch in the vaulting and in the principal arcades, as in the well-known porch that was then added to the nave of Vézelay.

The Cistercian builders followed both of these types. Their earlier churches—such as Hauterive, Bonmont, and Fontenoy—are of the simpler pointed barrel-vault construction, while their later ones, of which only one important monument, the church of Pontigny, has survived in Burgundy, followed the type of Vézelay, improved by the addition of the groin rib that had by this time come into use under the influence of the nascent Gothic of the Île-de-France.

M. Enlart's descriptions and illustrations of the Cistercian churches in Italy, and his detailed comparisons of them with the Burgundian monuments, show clearly that they are derived from the Burgundian models. In some instances these models have been almost exactly copied, as in the case of Fossanova in southern Italy, the nave of which closely resembles that of Pontigny. M. Enlart shows further that these Cistercian buildings in Italy had such influence on the subsequent native architecture as to justify his thesis of the French (*i. e.*, Burgundian) origin of the so-called Italian Gothic. It is instructive, however, to notice that the influence of the former native architectural traditions, which render the pointed architecture of Italy so different from the true Gothic of the North, and even from the Burgundian pointed style, begin to manifest themselves in these Cistercian monuments on Italian soil. The author calls attention to this "fâcheuse influence" in the otherwise fine church of San Golgano near Siena, which was begun in the year 1218; and he tells us that San Golgano determined the style of the Cathedral of Siena—Fra Vernaccio, Fra Melano, and Fra Mario,* who were successively employed to direct the works, being monks of San Golgano—and thus through Siena became the prototype of the so-called Tuscan Gothic style. This view seems correct. The leading characteristics of the Tuscan pointed buildings largely bear it out. The forms of the vaulting, the adjustment of supports, and the general internal and external arrangements in such a church as Sta. Maria Novella, or the Cathedral of Florence, are substantially like those of the Burgundian Gothic. M. Enlart recognizes, also, a subordinate influence from the Île-de-France as manifest more particularly in northern Italy, and notably in the beautiful Church of St. Andrea of Vercelli. But this is confined to ornamental details. No building in Italy shows anything resembling the structural system of the pure Gothic of the North.

One pertinent question M. Enlart has not discussed, namely, the possible indebtedness of the Burgundian builders, in common with all other builders in the North, to Italy itself for the rudiments of those features in their system which, aside from the use of the pointed arch, gave it what Gothic character it has. The evidence is strong, and has recently been further strengthened,† that the true origin of the organic Romanesque which was perfected in the French Gothic is found in the Lombard Romanesque. In that early and remarkable development we find vaulting on a full system of ribs, with compound supports logically adjusted to them. The system was not, indeed, a product of purely Italian genius. It was the result of the infusion of a northern element; and it was not advanced, or even retained, by the Italians after this northern influence declined, being foreign to their more classical traditions and predilections. There seems little question that this Lombard art, at least in its beginnings, was anterior to any corresponding form of Romanesque north of the Alps, and that it largely furnished the model for the magnificent systems that were, under the particular favoring conditions of the North, quickly developed into the Gothic.

Before the Cistercian monks came into Italy the two latest and most important of the Lombard Romanesque monuments, the Church of S. Ambrogio of Milan and the Church of S. Michele of Pavia, had been completed.* It is a peculiarity of these buildings that they are constructed with an alternate system arising from the use of one large vault in the nave to two smaller ones in the aisles, necessitating an alternation of large and small piers. The same alternate system, which by derivation occurs in various subsequent varieties of Romanesque, and also in the Gothic, is found in some of the Cistercian pointed churches of Italy, as in San Martino, near Viterbo. This may be, as M. Enlart supposes, in imitation of the sexpartite pointed buildings of the regions contiguous to northern Burgundy—such buildings, for instance, as the Church of Pont-sur-Yonne and the Cathedral of Sens; but, on the other hand, it is not impossible that it may have been derived largely from the nearer Lombard monuments in which the vaulted alternate system seems to have originated. Thus, while recognizing, in the main, the Burgundian origin of what is called Italian Gothic, we must also recognize a possible prior influence from northern Italy as having been active in the formation of the architecture of Burgundy in the twelfth century.

The term Gothic is used by M. Enlart in its widest sense as including all the forms of pointed architecture of the Middle Ages. But it would tend to greater clearness if writers on the architecture of this time would agree to restrict the term to that style which alone was the complete and consistent architectural expression of the mediæval genius. In a strictly correct sense the term is out of place in connection with this subject, for neither the pointed architecture of Italy nor its Burgundian prototype is in this sense Gothic. The true Gothic, the distinctive style of the Middle Ages, was developed in the Île-de-France, and was never consistently carried out elsewhere.

The book is an important one, and, besides throwing new light on the origin of Italian pointed architecture, it fills a gap in the history of the fine arts. Its general make up is admirable, without that useless elegance which often renders such works unnecessarily costly, and inconvenient to handle. The illustrations by the author's own hand are remarkably clear, and sufficiently abundant; while the numerous full-page phototypes are superbly executed, and bring the principal buildings referred to before the eye with absolute faithfulness.

Three Men of Letters. By Moses Coit Tyler. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1895. Pp. v, 200.

Under the above title, and in a dress of much typographic beauty, Prof. Tyler has grouped three sketches which are of the nature of by-products of his historical laboratory. The first, having to do with Bishop Berkeley's American visit, the writer tells us in his preface grew out of his 'History of American Literature during the Colonial Time'; and the two others, on President Dwight the elder and "The Literary Strivings of Mr. Joel Barlow," were prepared for his forthcoming 'Literary

* For a list of the *operati* of the Cathedral of Siena cf. Norton's 'Church-building in the Middle Ages,' p. 300.

† Cf. Cattaneo, 'L'Architectura in Italia dal Secolo VI. al Mille circa.' Venice, 1889.

* The dates of these two buildings have been much discussed, and variously assigned. Sig. Cattaneo, a cautious and able writer, regards the nave of S. Ambrogio as not later than the second half of the eleventh century. (*Ibid*, p. 210.)

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History of the American Revolution,' but seemed to Prof. Tyler chronologically inappropriate for that work. Though more lengthy than most of the sketches in Prof. Tyler's well-known 'History,' these monographs have much of the brevity of their original purpose; and they are marked by the same picturesqueness of treatment, the same vivacity of expression, and the same felicity of statement that characterize the author's larger volumes. His ingenuity, as well as his breadth of reading, is illustrated, for example, by his substituting for any minute criticism of his own an estimate of Dwight's 'Conquest of Canaan" written by the sympathetic English poet Cowper, in 1788, when an epic in rhymed pentameter might still hope to find readers not wholly weary of that form of composition.

An exceedingly entertaining bit of writing is Prof. Tyler's description of the strenuous regimen adopted by Dwight as a student, when

"the ancient superstition touching the peculiar virtue of early rising was still rampant at the college. The students were, indeed, not required to be at their morning devotions in the chapel earlier than half-past five o'clock in winter, or than half-past four in summer: but young Dwight, unable to sanction by his example the sluggish habits thus engendered, proudly betook himself from bed every morning in time to read and construe, before chapel, a hundred lines of Homer."

No less amusing is his account of the experiences of Joel Barlow as chaplain in the Revolutionary army—a chaplaincy not sought out of any love for the clerical profession.

But though Prof. Tyler usually tells his story with a twinkle of his eye and a ready welcome for the humorous—qualities much more conspicuous in the two later monographs of this volume than in that on Berkeley—he succeeds in leaving a distinct impression of the real worth of the subjects of his sketches and of some of the bases of their claims to permanent regard. The kindly idealist, Berkeley, waiting three years in vain on his Newport farm for governmental aid which never came from England to enable him to begin his desired American university, yet becoming, in spite of his disappointment, the life-long friend and benefactor of such institutions of learning as the colonies possessed; the many-sided Dwight, impressing his own intense intellectual and religious life on the college and the community where he labored; the versatile Barlow, holding fast during twenty-eight years of unusual vicissitude to his youthful dream of a poem worthily celebrating his native country—all stand out as distinct figures on Prof. Tyler's pages. The studies make no pretence of being complete biographies, they are not exhaustive literary criticisms, but they set forth, in a way likely to be helpful to the general reading public, the services of three very dissimilar men in the childhood of American letters.

It is to be regretted that Prof. Tyler, or his proof-reader, allowed the Connecticut city to appear as "Middleton" instead of Middletown (p. 62); and that in the Latin quotation (p. 88) "potestes" takes the place of *potestas*.

Rhodesia of To-day. A Description of the Present Condition and the Prospects of Matabeleland and Mashonaland. By E. F. Knight. Longmans, Green & Co. 1895. Map. Pp. viii, 151. 8vo.

UNDER the above caption a well-known traveller gives the impressions received in a journey made last year in south Central Africa as correspondent of the London *Times*. His book is primarily for the intending emigrant or investor, but it has a wider interest as showing very clearly how a vast tract of virgin territory is being methodically prepared for civilization. The promoters of the British South Africa Company, or, in other words, the Hon. Cecil J. Rhodes, have evidently done everything possible to make this experiment a success and to develop their possessions, carefully safeguarding at once the rights of the natives and the interests of shareholders and colonists. An elaborate and costly system of administration, for instance, has been established in all the centres of population, which will do much to prevent those lawless deeds of violence so frequent when pioneer whites come in contact with a weaker race. A mining law has been adopted, with the aid of an American expert, Mr. John Hays Hammond, in which "many improvements and modifications, dictated both by American and South African experience, have been introduced." Railway and telegraph lines are being rapidly built, fifty thousand mining claims have been registered, and a large number of farms have already been "pegged out." All the machinery of a country in an advanced state of civilization is set up and in running order in readiness for the coming tide of immigration.

Mr. Knight passes briefly in review the different topics on which information is most needed. The natives apparently are adapting themselves peaceably and contentedly to the new order, with the exception, possibly, of the military caste, out of which the company, however, hopes to make an excellent native police and soldiery. The climate of the high Veldt, where most of the cultivable and mineralized land is situated, is "undoubtedly healthy," and the fever which haunts the remainder of the country will disappear before occupation and civilization. Matabeleland is especially adapted for grazing, Mashonaland for agriculture; the fruits and vegetables of England growing on the hills, oranges and tropical productions in the valleys. There is gold in abundance; auriferous reefs are rich and extensive, but the alluvial gold has all been taken ages ago. A new clue to the mysterious ancient miners is given by the recent discovery of a copper coin of the reign of Antoninus Pius at the bottom of an ancient shaft near Umtali. They were doubtless prevented from getting more than the mere surface gold by the same difficulty which confronts the workman of to-day, the prohibitive cost of machinery. Fifty thousand dollars, for instance, "has to be paid for the carriage of a twenty-stamp battery to the Victoria district." The cost of transportation has been reduced by two-thirds since the time of Mr. Knight's visit, by the extension of the Beira railway to within seventy-five miles of the principal gold-fields.

In regard to emigration, he says: "This is no country for the 'waster,' the man of no trade and no means," but to farmers and skilled artisans Matabeleland "offers a good opening." Though Mr. Knight writes almost as if he held a brief for the shrewd and energetic managing director of the Chartered Company, it cannot be doubted that "Rhodesia" is a land of great promise—promise only, not fulfilment yet—and that in securing it for Great Britain Mr. Rhodes has displayed a far-sighted policy and a genius for organization which put him in the front rank of Englishmen of the day.

The Colonial Cavalier. By Maud Wilder Goodwin. Illustrated by Harry Edwards. New York: Lovell, Coryell & Co.

The Old Brick Churches of Maryland. By Helen West Ridgely. Illustrated by Sophie D. B. Stewart. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co.

Colonial Days and Dames. By Anne Hollingsworth Wharton. Illustrated by E. S. Holloway. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

AGREEABLE and valuable additions to Southern history are the first two books named above. The 'Colonial Cavalier' is a thoughtful, well-planned, orderly study of the domestic and social life of the cavalier emigrants of Virginia and Maryland. It gives to us, through the old-time gossip of letters and diaries, and the homely details of life and customs, a fireside intimacy with old Virginian and Maryland life which we have never had before. Though written in the simplest literary style, it is also in the best style, dignified and at the same time humorous and pleasing. The author notes in Jefferson's private account-book, under date of July 4, 1776, the day of the signing of the Declaration of Independence, the item, "For seven pairs of women's gloves, twenty shillings." "Even so," she says, "do great things and small jostle one another in this strange world of ours, and a woman's glove lies close to the document which changed the fate of nations." Mrs. Goodwin has scanned her authorities with discerning care, but she has drawn no one-sided conclusions. Especially has she refrained from gilding the American cavalier with the romance, the imaginary charms, with which many of his descendants elect to endow him. Life was grander in Virginia than in New England, and in some ways it was shabbier. The elegance and the shabbiness are both fully portrayed here.

'The Old Brick Churches of Maryland' is somewhat disappointing to those who are familiar with the county and town histories of Maryland, for but little historical matter, save that already made public in those histories, can be found in this new book. The brick churches and the chapels-of ease of Anglo-Catholic Kent, of Roman Catholic St. Mary's, and Puritan Anne Arundel are, however, all faithfully enumerated. The term chapel-of ease may need explanation for some readers. There were in Maryland at the time of the Establishment thirty-one parishes—each parish so large that a church attendant, forced by law to attend services, but possibly being at a long distance from the house of worship, might have to travel all day Saturday to reach the meeting-house, and all day Monday to get home. To relieve this state of things, chapels were built on outlying portions of each parish, in which services were held for communicants from remote plantations. In no colony was such freedom of religion and such protection of religion. The privilege, beloved of the Puritans, of calling names, was forbidden in Maryland. The celebrated "Act concerning Religion" forbade even the disparaging use of the words heretic, schismatic, idolater, Jesuit, Papist, priest, Presbyterian, Independent, Lutheran, Baptist, Brownist, Antinomian, Burrowist, Roundhead, under pain of ten pounds fine. So the Quakers also came to the safe haven and built their severely simple meeting-houses. The side-lights thrown throughout the book on the social developments of this meeting and friendly neighboring of the various sects are perhaps more interesting than the descriptions of the edifices. The score of illustrations are

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not very happy as counterfeit presentments of brick buildings, and are not, on the whole, as satisfactory as the more commonplace illustrations, so universal nowadays, obtained through the much-abused camera and half-tone process.

'Colonial Days and Dames' proves a pleasant successor to Miss Wharton's previous book, 'Through Colonial Doorways.' It is a cheerful and animated relation of incidents of colonial days in America, chiefly in Pennsylvania, written without much coherence in narration or regard for literary shape, yet on topics of sufficient genetic affinity to be properly gathered into chapters. But little new material is disclosed to the reader who is at all familiar with the established sources and authorities for colonial history, but the old materials are selected with good taste, and elucidated with a chatty vivacity which renders both the selections and commentary explanations attractive. The illustrations are also tasteful, and the book is pretty to look at, in print and binding.

The Post in Grant and Farm. By J. Wilson Hyde. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 1894.

THE author of this little book has long been an officer of the post, and has made good use of his opportunity to inquire into its early history. He goes back to the period when the postal service was confined to the forwarding of royal despatches, and shows how it came to undertake its enlarged functions as a public carrier. Early in the reign of James I. a patent was issued to Lord Stanhope as master of the King's posts "as well within the kingdom as in parts beyond the seas, within the King's dominions." Under Charles I., in accordance with the policy of raising money by the sale of offices, another patent was issued, creating a master of the posts in foreign parts "out of the King's dominions." It seems that by this time, although there was no authority for carrying the letters of private persons by the inland posts, it had become the practice of merchants to use the foreign posts in forwarding their packets. The fees for this service made the office of postmaster a lucrative one, and, as is still the case under like circumstances, he who held it had to fight to keep it. Gradually, however, the postmaster for foreign parts out of the King's dominions came to monopolize the foreign business, and in the process of time the internal posts fell under the same management.

The details of these changes, with the groans and complaints of those who had purchased their positions only to be presently deprived of them, are told at some length by Mr. Hyde, but they have little interest except as showing how private enterprise succeeded in creating an extensive business under the guise of a Government monopoly. The revenue received by the Crown was insignificant in amount, but the profits of the business were very large. Indeed, it was the gains derived from the carriage of foreign packets that suggested the idea of carrying the letters of private persons by the inland posts, and in accordance with custom the exclusive privilege of conducting this business was granted to the postmaster. It dimly appears that one Thomas Wilkerings had most to do with the development of a comprehensive postal system, and although he enlarged the business chiefly for his own gain, the public eventually profited. To the business of carrying the mail that of furnishing post-horses soon was added, and as the postmasters had certain rights to impress horses for their service, they seem to have found their places lucrative.

Some entertaining incidents of the primitive days when the royal mail was carried across the Channel by fishermen, and occasionally plundered by Dutch and Flemish pirates, have been extracted from the old records by Mr. Hyde; and he has preserved some official records of the rate of the posts, their charges, and the difficulties arising from the absence of roads. When the business once got fairly under way, it must have increased very rapidly, for we are told that in 1674 Lord Arlington paid £43,000 for the privilege of farming it. Mr. Hyde has certainly gathered together a good deal of recondite information; but he exhibits little skill in arranging his material, and his book is of value chiefly as a collection of annals

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The Chemistry of Paper-making, together with the Principles of General Chemistry. By R. B. Griffin and A. D. Little. New York: Howard Lockwood & Co. 1894. Pp. iv, 517.

THIS book is the work of able chemists who have had large experience in the chemical examination of paper-making materials and processes. The first 100 pages are devoted to a brief summary of the elementary facts and principles of chemistry. Of this part, the 21 pages given to theory offer an outline of fundamental principles which is for the most part exact, everywhere clear, and will be of much advantage to the technical reader. We note, however, the following statements which should be corrected: "Weight . . . in chemistry means about the same as the term 'mass' in physics" (p. 4). Differences in temperature are stated to consist in differences in "momentum of the moving molecules" instead of their kinetic energy (p. 6). "The power of the steam-engine is derived from the blows delivered against the piston by the 'infinite' number of molecules of 'water'" (p. 7). The law of Avogadro is called the law of Ampère (p. 8). Energy and force are used as equivalent terms (p. 4).

The special part of the book opens with an excellent discussion of cellulose and the various fibres which have been used or suggested for paper-making, illustrated by a plate of admirable micrographs of fibres from 'Papier-Prüfung,' by Dr. W. Herzberg. The fibres are classified as: Seed-hairs (cotton); bast fibres (linen, jute, etc.); those derived from whole stems or leaves (straw, esparto, etc.); those derived from wood. Chapter iii. deals with processes for isolating cellulose, the importance of wood fibre claiming all but ten pages of the 124 of the chapter; and the greater part of this space is occupied with a thorough treatment of the details and modifications of the sulphite process. Chapters on bleaching and on sizing and loading follow, and the important subject of water receives a chapter to itself. Chapters viii. and ix., covering about 100 pages, describe the analytical methods necessary to the paper chemist, and the chemical, mechanical, and microscopical testing of papers. In the last chapter a short account is given of electrolytic processes which have been proposed for the preparation of bleaching-liquors; in regard to which the authors make the following statement: "At the present time, however, the state of the art is such as to hold out little probability that the electrolytic production of bleaching agents will become a department of the paper-maker's work in any such general sense as the recovery of soda-ash or the manufacture of bisulphite solutions has already done" An appendix contains some useful tables, and the rules for spelling and pronouncing chemical terms adopted by the A. A. A. S., to which, however, no attention is paid in the spelling employed in the text.

The book is, on the whole, a good example of what a work of this kind should be. The account of methods and processes is careful and accurate, and the text nowhere obscure, although occasional infelicities of expression occur, as in the sentence quoted above. One does not, however, expect a technical work to be a model of English prose, and is thankful if, as in the present instance, he can follow the author without appreciable effort. Valuable matter from the authors' own experience is found in almost every chapter, especially in those on analysis and paper-testing; and the whole work is characterized by thorough knowledge, good judgment, and proportion.

The Saga of King Olaf Tryggwason, who reigned over Norway A. D. 995 to A. D. 1000. Translated by J. Sephton, M.A. London: Nutt; New York: Macmillan. 1895.

THE Great Olaf Tryggvason Saga, as Vigfusson appropriately called it, has doubtless remained so long untranslated—this is the first English version—because of the early rendition of the 'Heimskringla,' which also contains a life of the king. From some points of view this has been a loss. The 'Heimskringla' saga is in many ways its inferior, in spite of the pre-eminent place of that whole work in Old Norse literature. It not only has in numerous instances an abridged form of episodes, undoubtedly good history, connected with the King, but it gives others only in part, and some it omits altogether. The Great Olaf Tryggvason Saga is much more loquacious and discursive, and, as a whole, perhaps infinitely less critical. It has admitted, for instance, all sorts of legendary material, such as was likely to spring up about the King in his great work of the conversion of Norway to Christianity, that is not found in the soberer narrative of the 'Heimskringla.' The Olaf of the 'Heimskringla,' in short, is an historical person; in the present saga he has assumed an heroic and superhuman aspect, and is gifted with supernatural insight and miraculous powers. If we accept Vigfusson's view, the more amplified saga is, nevertheless, the earlier. He even sees in it the original full text of Snorri, of which the 'Heimskringla' is but an abridgment; it has been interlarded, however, with many minor sagas and fragments of sagas bearing upon the life of the King, from various sources, known and unknown—all additions of the thirteenth century. Who was the author of the form in which we have it is uncertain. In all probability it was, like most of the longer sagas, a composite growth. Its last reviser may possibly have been Berg Sokkason, who was made abbot at Thverá, in the north of Iceland, in 1325.

The present translation is, in many ways, an excellent one, although, unfortunately enough, the picturesqueness of diction abundantly characteristic of the original saga has all but exhaled in the process of rendition. There is somewhere a mean between the pseudo archaism of the Morris Magnusson translations and this. These authors have evolved a sort of pre-Early English for the language of their sagas; Mr. Sephton has gone to the other extreme and made of his a modern book. An archaic feature has been suffered to remain in the citation of the 'Antiquitates Americanæ,'

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published in 1837, as authority for the location of Vinland, which in the index is stated to have been Massachusetts and Rhode Island. Storm's 'Studier over Vinlandsreiserne' (1888) and Reeves's 'Wineland the Good' (1890) have disposed of the matter differently.

The saga, which is beautifully printed and attractively bound, is the initial volume of a new series of translations from the Old Norse. The next to follow is the Færeyinga Saga, to be translated by F. York Powell, Vigfusson's old collaborator in this field and the successor of Froude as Regius Professor of History at Oxford.

Sir William Petty: A Study in English Economic Literature. By Wilson Lloyd Bevan, M.A., Ph.D. 1894. (Publications of the American Economic Association, vol. ix., No. 4.)

FORMALLY, Dr. Bevan's study is divided into an introduction and six chapters. Essentially, it consists of three parts, dealing, first, with Petty's life (1623–1687), and bibliographically with his writings; second, with his views on specific economic topics, as labor, rent, taxation; third, with "Petty in relation to contemporary England, and his place in economic literature." Lack of care, apparently proceeding from lack of time, is the most prominent characteristic of the whole study; it forces itself upon the reader's attention before he has finished the introduction, and evidences of it pursue him literally to the last page. In the first part, for example, a careful narrative of Petty's checkered and successful career might have been made to contribute much towards the elucidation of the writings subsequently to be discussed. Instead of working out such a narrative—no holiday task, to be sure—Dr. Bevan reprints in chapter one some "materials for Petty's biography," viz., his curious autobiographic will and Aubrey's sketch of him, both reproduced in part only, and appends, in chapter two, a score of "illustrations and notes on Petty's life from contemporary sources." These are scraps collected here, there, and everywhere—some of them no doubt scraps of value, but scraps none the less. Partial materials for study they may possibly be; part of a study they are not.

The danger of attempting to draw conclusions from such fragments is well illustrated by Dr. Bevan's own treatment of one of them. After mentioning Petty's invention of double writing, he says:

> "This invention, like a good many of Petty's later mechanical devices, proved a failure. Curiously we find in a letter, written by Sir Christopher Wren some years after, a reference to a similar machine. Wren, without mentioning any name, complained that a model of his invention, in a still imperfect condition, had been seen by chance by a visitor, and reproduced. . . . The history of Petty's own invention leads us to suspect that he may have been the person whom Wren accuses of this dishonorable act. From what we know of Petty's insensibility to strict honesty where he saw any chance of furthering his own interests, we cannot say that he was incapable of such an action."

This is surely pushing inference rather far. Like other English land-grabbers in Ireland, Petty probably acquired part of his estates there, after the Cromwellian settlement, by methods not strictly honorable if judged according to our present standards. His answer to the charges of corruption brought against him in Parliament is not entirely satisfactory. But what we know about it—and we *know* very little—scarcely justifies Dr. Bevan's persistent insinuations that Petty was generally dishonest, and by no means justifies the unsupported charge that he was this particularly mean thief. As for the history of the invention, it is known that Petty's device for double writing was completed prior to December 22, 1647. Sir Christopher Wren was then a youth of fifteen years and one month, and there is reason for believing that up to that time Petty had never seen him.

This specific instance of an argument upon insufficient grounds would not deserve notice if it stood alone. But it does not. Another example of Dr. Bevan's hasty way of presenting the results of his study might be taken from the last chapter: "In his will he [Petty] again betrays Hobbes' influence, where his words mean that the authority of the state in religion is supreme." The only words in Petty's will, partly printed in chapter one, upon which such a construction can be put, are these:

> "As for religion, I die in the profession of that faith, and in the practice of such worship as I find established by the law of my country [here, in the middle of a sentence, Dr. Bevan's quotation unexpectedly ends], not being able to believe what I myself please, nor to worship God better than by doing as I would be done unto, and observing the laws of my country, and expressing my love and honor to almighty God by such signs and tokens as are understood to be such by the people with whom I live, God knowing my heart even without any at all."

Hobbes's influence is here more evident, one must own, if the hurried reader stops with the hurried Doctor, half-way through the passage.

In order, in his second part, to discuss Petty's economic views, Dr. Bevan must first decide where those views are to be found. Accordingly, he reopens the controversy as to the authorship of those famous 'Natural and Political Observations upon the Bills of Mortality' whose publication in 1661, under the name of Capt. John Graunt, marks the beginning of vital statistics, and indeed of all intelligent statistical study. Differing from McCulloch, Roscher, De Morgan, John, and Cunningham, whose "view, however plausibly stated, hardly seems to give adequate weight to contemporary testimony," Dr. Bevan assigns the 'Observations' to Petty. We cannot enter at length into this controversy, which is almost as complicated and fully as perverse as the Bacon-Shakspere quarrel. But, in passing, we may briefly note one or two reasons for thinking that, had Dr. Bevan examined the case a little more carefully, he would have hesitated before assigning greater weight to the contemporary testimony for Petty than to that he might have found for Graunt. The only contemporary testimony that Dr. Bevan mentions in favor of Petty is that of Evelyn (Diary, 22 March, 1675) and of Aubrey. Aubrey, however, gives two conflicting accounts, of which our study finds room to consider the second only. In the sketch of Petty's life which he furnished Anthony à Wood, *circa* 1680, Aubrey says that Graunt wrote the 'Observations.' But in a supplemental note, added, perhaps, after Petty's death in 1687, he says of Petty: "The 'Observations upon the Bills of Mortality' are really his." Opposed to this somewhat doubtful evidence, there stands, in addition to Petty's own frequent mention of the book as Graunt's, the contemporary testimony of Bishop Sprat, historian of the Royal Society; of Oldenburg, its secretary; of its committee appointed February 12, 1662, to examine Graunt's book; of the Royal Society itself in electing Graunt, a tradesman, to membership because of his book; and of the Council of the Royal Society, which, on the 20th of June, 1665, during the Plague, "ordered, that the 'Observations upon the Bills of Mortality,' by Mr. John Graunt, be printed by John Martyn and James Allestry, printers to the Royal Society." Concerning all this contemporary testimony telling against his position, Dr. Bevan says not a word. Nor is there, is his subsequent account of the contents of the 'Observations' and of the further treatment of similar subjects in the 'Essays on Political Arithmetick,' which are indisputably by Petty, any indication that Dr. Bevan appreciates the superiority of method and the greater general sobriety of Graunt's statistical work as compared with Petty's.

Petty's economic notions may be presented in either of two ways. On the one hand, since each of his pamphlets was directed to a concrete problem or problems, each may be described for itself, and with relation to the circumstances out of which it originated. On the other hand, the ideas embodied in his several pamphlets may be grouped topically. The latter method, which Dr. Bevan has chosen to follow in the second part of his study, is perhaps the better; it is certainly the more difficult of the two. Especially in the case of an author like Petty, whose economic writings cover a period of twenty-five years, during which his notions underwent considerable modification, the collocation of sentences selected from various pamphlets, regardless of their chronology, cannot fail to be misleading. Now Petty's bibliographical chronology is not simple. Some of his writings, for example the 'Treatise of Taxes and Contributions,' 1662, and the 'Five Essays in Political Arithmetick,' 1687, were published within a few months of their composition. Others lay years in manuscript before they were printed. Thus the 'Verbum Sapienti,' written in 1665, was printed in 1691 as an appendix to the 'Political Anatomy of Ireland,' which was written in 1672. In like manner the 'Political Arithmetick,' written in 1676, six years before the first of Petty's numerous "Essays," was not published until 1690, three years after the last of them. Of these facts Dr. Bevan takes so little account in expounding Petty's ideas, that his study affords but an imperfect survey of their development. This is indeed a fault, but to avoid it were so difficult that its commission may almost be overlooked. Less excusable are the evidences of continued carelessness which mar the execution of the second part of the study also. For example, in his account of the 'Observations' Dr. Bevan says (p. 49): "A table of mortality by decades, constructed by guesswork, is fitly followed by the astounding statement that London doubles its population in eight years." The passage of the 'Observations' to which reference is here made (sec. 12 of chapter xi.) runs thus:

> "The next enquiry will be, In how long time the City of *London* shall, by the ordinary proportion of Breeding and dying, double its breeding People? I answer, In about seven years, and (*Plagues* considered) eight. Wherefore, since there be 24000 pair of Breeders, that is ⅛ of the whole, it follows, that in eight times eight years [!] the whole people of the City shall double, without the access of Forreiners."

It is unnecessary to examine the third part, on "Petty's place in economic literature." The ingenious founder of political arithmetic was also an economist of no mean ability. Taken all in all, he is perhaps the most important English economic writer before Hume, and relatively the most neglected. To Dr. Bevan he justly seemed "to merit more attention than he has hitherto received." After reading this study, we are of like opinion.

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Petty still merits more, or at any rate other, attention than he has hitherto received.

Lucy Larcom: Life, Letters, and Diary. By Daniel Dulang Addison. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1894.

One has only to look at the picture of Miss Larcom facing the title-page of this volume to know that hers was a noble, liberal, and kindly soul. Many have long been aware of this by other means, and these will take the greatest pleasure in the biography which her pastor has written with unaffected admiration for his parishioner and friend. Yet we cannot but hope that many others will read the simple story, and some of these will certainly be led to read Miss Larcom's various books, it may be to discover that there was more music in her than she ever got out, and that her genial personality was something better than its happiest expression either in prose or in verse. Mr. Addison has done his work well and made a most agreeable and interesting book. He has subordinated himself to his subject in a manner that commends to us his taste and modesty. The most obvious lack is that of any critical appreciation of Miss Larcom's work. A few pages from her townsman, Professor Woodberry, would here have been a notable addition. And, indeed, it is in a letter to Professor Woodberry that she makes a criticism on herself which is admirable for its sincere discrimination, though its construction is more stern than just if we apply it to her better work. She writes:

"Most of our modern verse—and I include my own—is too superficially lyrical; the measure often muffles the meaning; the thought flies off through the sound. In yours, the music and the meaning unfold together; always hinting the deeper chords half awakened beneath."

But Prof. Woodberry would probably be the first to tell us that in her recognition in him of possibilities greater than Clough's performance, and her assurance that "Milton might have been proud to write" some of his passages, there was too much of her habitual kindness and something of her pride in a new Beverly poet.

If, with the lack of critical appreciation, there is in Mr. Addison's book something of excess, it is in its endeavor to turn the late adhesion of Miss Larcom to the Episcopal Church to some good account for that particular schism. Here and there we seem to be reading a tract or an extract from a sermon. But then, too, it should be said that Mr. Addison's Episcopalianism is that of Phillips Brooks, as was that of Miss Larcom, the broadest of the broad—the Episcopal Church one door of many into the Church Universal. It is certain that Miss Larcom never would have joined the Episcopal Church, as she did in 1890, when she was sixty-six years old, if she had not seen that church invested with the splendor of Phillips Brooks's personality and shining with the light of his countenance. Reared in Puritan Congregationalism, she reacted from its narrowness, and found herself in sympathy with such minds as F. W. Robertson and F. D. Maurice—even more with the latter than with the former, for the trend of her mind was exceptionally mystical from first to last. Tauler and the other mystics were the purveyors of her spiritual food. She did her thinking mainly with her heart. Yet she so loved those roots of her own life that fed upon the Puritan soil that not even her delight in Phillips Brooks's preaching and the warmth of his friendship were able to make her an Episcopalian until after many years of her experience of these things. She had a childish satisfaction in her new spiritual home once she had entered it.

A chapter of twenty pages covers the period of which Miss Larcom wrote so pleasantly in 'A New England Girlhood.' The chapter is a good summary of that delightful book, but it is no sufficient substitute for it. The sensible reader will at once possess himself of that, if it is not already known to him. As a factory girl at Lowell she saw and was a part of that most interesting phase of factory life which produced the *Lowell Offering* and kindred publications. There was nothing precocious in her literary talent, and her poetry for a long time lagged behind her prose, especially that of her journal and letters, which, apparently, was much better than that of her more conscious literary efforts. They are full of animal spirits and rollicking fun, as she describes her journey West in 1846, her life on Looking-Glass Prairie, her early teaching, which was followed by several years of combined study and teaching in an academy of ambitious prospectuses and moderate advantages. There are intimations of a long-drawn tragedy beginning in these years—an engagement which went on up to the threshold of the war. Miss Larcom frankly celebrated the catastrophe in one of her best-known poems, "A Loyal Woman's 'No.'" Her lover held pro-slavery opinions, and she was always anti-slavery and abolitionist in her own, with so little "prejudice against color" that sometimes she seems to have had a prejudice in its favor.

Coming east again in 1853, she soon after became one of the teachers in the Wheaton Seminary at Boston, Mass., and there she remained until 1865, when ill health obliged her to give up the position. Her skill in teaching must have been considerable, and her influence on her pupils excellent, but to do literary work was the interest and passion of her life. Recognition on this line came to her very slowly. Her "Hannah Binding Shoes" was printed in the *Knickerbocker Magazine* without payment or acknowledgment and without her knowledge, whereupon she sent it to the *Crayon*, where it was again printed and brought on her the reproach of the *Knickerbocker* editor as "a literary thiefess." She spoke at the time most disrespectfully of the poem, which now stands, and by good right, in the fore-front of her complete collection. The first poem that brought her into notice was a "Kansas Emigrant Song," which successfully competed for a prize offered by the Emigrant Aid Society. In 1859 she tried in vain to find a publisher for a volume of her verse, though she had Whittier for a backer with Ticknor & Fields. It must have been much more difficult to find a publisher for poetry then than now, when the new volumes are thicker than the leaves of Vallombrosa. But then, perhaps, she wanted a publisher who would take the risk, for she always had to struggle for a living. Considering the amount and quality of her literary work, there is something to instruct and warn the young aspirant who is looking to pure literature as a means of livelihood.

Her fortunes were pathetic. She could never go to Europe; she could never have a home of her own; she was obliged to take an annuity from her friends. She was, however, rich in these, and among them Whittier and his sister took the lead. She met Whittier first when she was a factory girl in Lowell. Their mutual relations grew into something very beautiful. For a long time she showed him her verses before printing them, and when she declared her independence he was a little hurt. His influence upon their thought and form is not to be escaped. They collaborated in the making of certain compilations, so that we do not know whom to blame for the inaccuracies, which were many. At his death she was astonished at his wealth, and glad to find that he had willed her the copyright of the books they had made together.

Her alliterative name was generally supposed to be a pseudonym, and on one occasion a gentleman asked her if there wasn't some one who wrote poetry calling herself "Lucy Larcom," adding assuringly, "I never read any of the stuff." Though

"Born in the East on a seaward rock,"

the sea had for her no such fascination as the mountains, and that she often visited these in the company of Whittier was one of the rarest satisfactions of her life. Her poem "A Strip of Blue" is an exact expression of her preference for a glimpse of the sea to its limitless expanse. There was a homely sweetness in her verse as in her life that was her surest charm The extracts from her journal and letters are a frank disclosure of her inner life, while her opinions upon contemporary books offer many an interesting challenge to our own. On page 79 there are three errors of transcription in Donne's perfect couplet,

"No Spring, nor Summer's beauty hath such grace,
As I have seen in one autumnal face."

Two of them are important; especially so is the substitution of "an" for "one" in the second line. The lines were written for George Herbert's mother. They do for Lucy Larcom quite as well.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Appleton, Henri. Des Effets des Annexations de Territoires sur les Dettes de l'Etat démembré ou annexé. Paris: L. Larose.
Bacon, Rev. T. S. It Is Written. James Pott & Co. 75 cents.
Barhite, Jared. Our Profession, and Other Poems. Long Island City: W. E. Barhite. $1.25.
Beeching, H. C. In a Garden, and Other Poems. London: John Lane; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Benson, A. C. Lyrics. London: John Lane; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Beers, Prof. H. A. The Ways of Yale in the Consulship of Plancus. Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.
Beesly, A. H. Ballads and Other Verse. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Bloundelt-Burton, John. The Hispaniola Plate. Cassell. $1.
Bolles, Frank. Chocorua's Tenants. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1
Boyesen, Prof. H. H. Essays on Scandinavian Literature. Scribners. $1.50.
Boynton, Gen. H. V. The Chickamauga National Military Park. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. $1.50.
Brainerd, T. H. "Go Forth and Find." Cassell. 50 cents.
Briggs, Prof. C. A. The Messiah of the Apostles. Scribners. $3.
Brooks, Noah. How the Republic is Governed. Scribner. 75 cents.
Brooks, Noah. Short Studies in Party Politics. Scribners. $1.25.
Burwell, Letitia M. A Girl's Life in Virginia before the War. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Campbell, Rev. J. G. Waifs and Strays of Celtic Tradition. London: David Nutt.
Castlemon, Harry. Elam Storm, the Wolfer. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Christ and the Church: Essays concerning the Church and the Unification of Christendom. F. H. Revell Co. $1.50.
Clodd, Edward. A Primer of Evolution. Longmans, Green & Co. 75 cents.
Coffin, C. C. Daughters of the Revolution and their Times. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Cohen, Rev. Henry. Talmudic Sayings. Cincinnati: Block Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Conway, M. D. The Writings of Thomas Paine. Vol. III. 1791—1804. Putnams. $2.50.
Cressey, G. C. The Essential Man: A Monograph on Personal Immortality. Boston: G. H. Ellis. 75 cents.
Croquet, C. P. du. French Verbs, Regular and Irregular. W. R. Jenkins.
Cutts, Rev. E. L. Augustine of Canterbury. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
D'Avenel, le Vicomte. La Fortune Privée à travers Sept Siècles. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Defoe, Daniel. History of the Plague in London. American Book Co. 40 cents.
Doyle, A. C. The Mystery of Cloomber. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.
Eldridge, C. W. The United States Internal Revenue Tax System. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Fontaine, C. Fleurs de France: Quinze Contes. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 60 cents.
Foote, A. R. A Sound Currency and Banking System. Putnams. 75 cents.
French, C. W. Selections from Browning. A. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.

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Gollancz, Israel: King Henry IV. 2 vols. King Richard II. [The Temple Shakspere.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. Each 45 cents.
Hearn, Lafcadio. "Out of the East": Reveries and Studies in New Japan. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Ingram, Prof. J. K. A History of Slavery and Serfdom. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.60.
Jones, Prof. Henry. A Critical Account of the Philosophy of Lotze: The Doctrine of Thought. Macmillan. $1.90.
Kelly, Edmond. Evolution and Effort, and their Relation to Religion and Politics. Appletons.
Littell's Living Age. Jan.-March, 1895. Boston: Littell & Co.
MacDonald, George. Annals of a Quiet Neighborhood. Harpers. 50 cents.
McMaster, Prof. J. B. History of the People of the United States. Vol. IV. Appletons.
Minot, H. D. The Land-Birds and Game-Birds of New England. 2d ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Murlin, E. L. The Red Book: An Illustrated Legislative Manual of the State. Albany: J. B. Lyon.
Nodier, Charles. Trilby the Fairy of Argyle. Boston: Lampson, Wolffe & Co. 50 cents.
Rockwood, Prof. F. E. Cicero's Cato Major de Senectute. American Book Co. 90 cents.
Shields, Prof. C. W. The United Church of the United States. Scribners.
Stevenson, R. L. The Body Snatcher. The Merriam Co.
Valdés, A. P. The Grandee. Geo. Gottsberger Peck.
Webster, Daniel. Bunker Hill, and Other Orations. American Book Co. 20 cents.
Willard, Miss F. E. How I Learned to Ride the Bicycle. F. H. Revell Co. 50 cents.
Wise, T. J. Spenser's Faerie Queene. Illustrated. Part IV. London: George Allen: New York: Macmillan. $3.
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